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THE PEDAGOGICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF UNCONSCIOUS FACTORS IN CAREER
MOTIVATION FOR TEACHERS.

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A STUDY WAS DESIGNED TO PRODUCE AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE INFLUENCE OF A TEACHER'S MOTIVES FOR HER PERFORMANCE AND EFFECTIVENESS IN THE CLASSROOM. THE FIRST ASPECT OF THE STUDY DEALT WITH A PSYCHOMETRIC DESCRIPTION OF THE INSTRUMENTS DESIGNED TO ASSESS TEACHER MOTIVES. THE SECOND ASPECT DEALT WITH THE ABILITY OF THE TEACHER PREFERENCE SCALE (TPS) TO DISCRIMINATE AND CLARIFY DIFFERENCES BETWEEN VARIOUS GROUPS OF TEACHERS. THE THIRD ASPECT WAS CONCERNED WITH THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS AMONG THREE FACTORS--(1) TEACHER PERSONALITY, (2) TEACHER BEHAVIOR IN THE CLASSROOM, AND (3) PUPIL RESPONSE. TEACHER PERSONALITY WAS ASSESSED THROUGH THE TPS AND THE STERN ACTIVITIES INDEX. TEACHER BEHAVIOR WAS OBSERVED DIRECTLY IN THE CLASSROOM. PUPIL RESPONSE WAS ALSO OBSERVED DIRECTLY IN THE CLASSROOM AND SEVERAL INDIRECT MEASURES OF PUPIL RESPONSE BECAME AVAILABLE. THE SAMPLE INCLUDED 86 TEACHERS OF FOURTH AND FIFTH GRADES IN SCHOOLS IN CENTRAL NEW YORK STATE. THREE TEST SCORES WERE AVAILABLE--(1) TPS FORM A, (2) TPS FORM G, AND (3) THE STERN ACTIVITIES INDEX (SAI). EIGHT HYPOTHESES WERE TESTED. THE THIRD ASPECT OF THE STUDY WAS CONSIDERED THE MOST IMPORTANT BUT, ALSO PROVED DISAPPOINTING. THE TPS DID NOT RELATE IN ANY CONSISTENT MANNER WITH PUPIL BEHAVIOR, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, OR SOCIOMETRIC RESULTS. THE SAI PROVED TO BE A MUCH BETTER INSTRUMENT FOR PREDICTING PUPIL BEHAVIOR AND ACHIEVEMENT THAN THE TPS. OTHER FINDINGS WERE DESCRIBED. (HB)

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THE PEDAGOGICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF UNCONSCIOUS FACTORS
IN CAREER MOTIVATION FOR TEACHERS

Cooperative Research Project No.: SAE 8175

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Foreword

The research reported here is a description of an attempt made to relate selected characteristics and results of the teaching process to some needs and attitudes of the teachers. The present study is an outgrowth of an earlier investigation into the area of unconscious needs of teachers; both studies were made possible by the support of the United States Office of Education.

Since it is unlikely that many readers will be equally interested in all aspects of this report, the various segments have been divided into separate chapters. The outline given below will help the reader turn to those chapters which are of concern and will help him avoid that which is irrelevant to his interests:

Chapter I. Introduction. A review of the methodology and results of the first study is presented here, together with a description of the procedures used in the present study. Pp. I - 1 to I - 8.

Chapter II. Item and scale characteristics. In this chapter is found detailed data on the reliability of the 20 scales in the Teacher Preference Schedule (TPS) and discrimination indices for all 200 items of the TPS. Pp. II - 1 to II - 18.

Chapter III. The ability of the TPS to discriminate between various classifications of teachers and undergraduate education majors is examined here. The following variables were investigated: Pp. III-1 to III-5.

1. Sex
2. Experience in teaching
3. Grade level taught
4. Subject matter taught
5. School system of employment
6. Place of undergraduate preparation
7. Amount of education

Chapter IV. A description of the classroom observational instruments, an estimate of the reliability of observation, and the ratings and scores reported for each of the observed teachers is found in this chapter. Pp. IV-1 to IV-10.

Chapter V. This chapter reports the relationships between the teachers' scores on the TPS and their ratings and scores on the dependent variables of this study. Pp. V-1 to V-11.

Chapter VI. The TPS was administered in 1958 and 1959 to many of the teachers newly employed by the Syracuse Board of Education. This chapter contains the relationships between the scores of these teachers and the record of their absences, and continued employment. Pp. VI-1 to VI-2.

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Chapter VII. The TPS was administered by Dr. Fred Ratzeburg of the State Teachers College at Oswego, N.Y. to two groups of Oswego cadet teachers; these scores were then related to the evaluation made of their cadet teaching work and examined for changes in attitudes as a result of the teaching experience. This chapter reports this work. Pp. VII-1 to VII-4.

Chapter VIII. The ability of the TPS to predict the number and types of referrals which teachers make to a school psychologist is discussed in this chapter. Other analyses of the teachers' referrals are also presented here. Pp. VIII-1 to VIII-6.

Chapter IX. Summary. A brief review of the method, results and evaluation of the project is given here. Pp. IX-1 to IX-5.

Before the main body of the report is presented the authors want to acknowledge explicitly the help received from a number of individuals. Research in the classroom is not an easy undertaking; that it was accomplished at all is due to the time and effort given to this venture by so many people. The following school psychologists served as representative and coordinator of the project in their various schools. They arranged introductions, soothed an occasional hurt feeling, provided needed information. Most important of all, they were the agents directly responsible for securing the cooperation of the teachers and schools.

Dr. Howard Norris, Board of Cooperative Studies, Yorkville, N.Y.

Mr. Frank Rhyner, Liverpool, N.Y. School System

Mr. Manfred DeMartino, Baldwinsville, N.Y., and Skaneateles, N.Y. School Systems

Mr. William Seil, Adams Center, N.Y. School System

Within the schools, the following school personnel granted the project every courtesy, allowed us to disrupt the efficiency of the classes and made available whatever school records were needed:

Mr. Kenneth P. Drake, Principal, Delaware School, Syracuse, N.Y.

Miss Ruth O'Brien, Principal, Sumner School, Syracuse, N.Y.

Mr. Robert Hyles, Elementary Principal, Clinton Road School, New Hartford, N.Y.

Miss Eleanor Palmer, Elementary Supervisor, Point School, New Hartford, N.Y.

Mr. Elliot Hughes, Director of Elementary Education, Point School, New Hartford, N.Y.

Mr. Nathan Perry, Principal, Buckley Road School, Liverpool, N.Y.

Mrs. Allene Blake, Principal, Chestnut Hill School, Liverpool, N.Y.

Mrs. Hilda Jackson, Principal, Liverpool Elementary School, Liverpool, N.Y.

Mr. Mark Loveless, Principal, Salt City School, Liverpool, N.Y.

Mr. Donald Kearns, Principal, Skaneateles Central School,
Skaneateles, N.Y.

Mr. Maynard Wilson, Principal, Adams Center Elementary
School, Adams Center, N.Y.

Mr. Neil Weigelt, Principal, Elden School, Baldwinsville, N.Y.

Mr. Joseph Ritter, Principal, Elizabeth Street School,
Baldwinsville, N.Y.

Mr. Leslie Eisenhower, Principal, Van Buren School,
Baldwinsville, N.Y.

Mr. J. William Quinn, Supervising Principal, New York Mills
School, New York Mills, N.Y.

Mr. Kenneth J. Gadbou, Elementary Supervisor, New York Mills
School, New York Mills, N.Y.

The normative sample was secured through the help of the following people:

Mr. Elliot Birnbaum, President, Empire State Teachers Assn.

Dr. Thomas Clayton, School of Education, Syracuse Univ.

Dr. Landon Cox, State Teachers College, Cortland, N.Y.

Mrs. Mary Fehner, President, Dolgeville Teachers Assn.,
Dolgeville, N.Y.

Dr. Monroe Levin, School Psychologist, Oneida School System,
Oneida, N.Y.

Mrs. Ann Mathews, President, Manlius Elementary Faculty Assn.

Dr. Harold O'Neill, Assistant Superintendent, Syracuse School
System, Syracuse, N.Y.

Dr. Fred Ratzeburg, State Teachers College, Oswego, N.Y.

Mr. Emory Tooley, Superintendent, Dolgeville School System,
Dolgeville, N.Y.

Mr. Raymond VanGiesen, Superintendent, Fayetteville-Manlius
School System, Manlius, N.Y.

Mr. Ralph V. Westervelt, Superintendent, Oneida School System,
Oneida, N.Y.

Prof. Albert Wiberley, Campus School Psychologist, State
Teachers College, Oneonta, N.Y.

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In many phases of this project the cooperation of the Syracuse Board of Education was needed. Dr. Paul Miller, Superintendent of Schools, Mr. Gerald Cleveland, Assistant Superintendent, and Mr. David Sine, Director of Research, supported this work, loaned materials when needed and provided constant help and cooperation.

Dr. James Smith of the School of Education, Syracuse University, again in this project as its predecessor, made available advanced education students to work as classroom observers.

The training of the observers had to take place in a classroom and not the laboratory. This requirement would have been an insurmountable obstacle had not the principal of the Manlius, N.Y. elementary school, Miss Gwendolyn Long, agreed to open her classes to the project. Our observers made frequent use of this school for training purposes; what success was achieved in attaining respectable inter-observer reliability is due to the excellent facilities Miss Long made available. The work on school psychology referrals was suggested by Mr. Raymond Van Giesen, Superintendent of the Fayetteville-Manlius School system. He and his staff arranged for all the teachers in this system to take the TPS and complete the other forms necessary in this part of the project.

The teachers who allowed us to enter their classrooms to observe are, of course, the real "heroes" of this work, although they must of necessity remain anonymous. No one likes to be observed at work, and the dedication these teachers have to education and children deserves special praise. To all these, and to any others inadvertently omitted, this project is enormously indebted. Hopefully, this expenditure of time, effort and money will help make teaching a more efficient process for both teacher and child.

INTRODUCTION

The present work is a continuation of an earlier investigation of the importance of unconscious motives in the teaching process. Because two of the instruments used in the present study--the Teacher Preference Schedules--resulted from this previous research, it has been summarized below from an earlier and more complete account (Stern, Masling, Denton, Henderson and Levin, 1960).

The initial investigation was wholly test-oriented; one interest lay in the possibility of developing instruments which would enable us to conceptualize and measure some of the many patterns of unconscious career motivation to be found among teachers.

Preliminary Procedures

As a first stage in developing a measure of patterns of unconscious motivation for teaching, preliminary descriptions of 18 teacher roles were prepared with the aid of the supervisory staff of the Syracuse public school system. A panel was subsequently formed, consisting of six teachers active in local teachers' organizations, which met and discussed each hypothetical role in detail, identified 29 individuals considered highly representative of the 18 patterns, and arranged for these "ideal types" to be interviewed by the project staff.

Six of the 29 were males, and the age range for the entire sample was from 24 to 57 with a median of 37 years. Their experience in teaching ranged roughly from 2 to 35 years with a median of 15 years. Their teaching assignments were equally varied, the 29 subjects representing 13 different areas of specialized performance.

Each of the 29 teachers was interviewed individually, the sessions lasting from 2 3/4 to 5 1/4 hours. Each session included a depth interview, an administration of 10 TAT cards and an 80 item Q-sort. In addition, each teacher was given the Stern Activities Index (1958) to complete at home.

The depth interview covered family background, early influences regarding the choice of teaching as a career, experiences in teaching, and ultimate goals. The purpose of the interview was to derive some understanding of the unique forces in each person's life which oriented him toward teaching, the dynamic functions which teaching currently served in each respondent's personality, his attitudes towards various aspects of teaching, and the place of teaching in his larger system of social values and beliefs.

For each subject the interpretations derived from the TAT and interview material were organized into a comprehensive case study which attempted to integrate personal history, family dynamics, cognitive processes, adjustment mechanisms, sexual adjustment and interpersonal relations, with particular emphasis on the place of his occupational role in his total personality organization.

Unconscious motives for teaching were inferred from statements obtained in the interviews regarding primary sources of gratification from teaching. Thus, a teacher who spoke of the satisfaction she felt when one of her pupils referred to her as "mother" was considered to have revealed a nurturant motive. Attitude statements were identified in terms of ideological justifications for various teaching practices, e.g., "A good teacher has to be a super-salesman" was classified as an attitudinal rationalization for exhibitionistic behavior. The TAT and Activities Index provided information regarding personality needs.

When these data were examined, it was found that each teacher had expressed a number of different sources of satisfaction in teaching. One of these, presumably, constituted a valid reflection of the primary motive discerned by the teacher's

colleagues in referring her to us as a subject. The attitudinal assertions found in the subject's record were no better clue to this underlying motive since these too were found to be classifiable in several different categories for each subject.

A number of these "false" gratifications were eliminated by discarding those for which the subject had expressed no supporting attitudes. The remaining gratifications, i.e., those satisfactions in teaching for which the subject also presented ideological justifications, were then analyzed for consistency with personality needs inferred from the subject's Activities Index and TAT responses. This procedure left one gratification for each subject which was buttressed by an appropriate attitude and needs system. That one proved consistent with the original role category for which the teacher had been nominated by her colleagues.

It would appear that the motive which found expression in the overt behavior observed by the teacher's colleagues could be inferred from that gratification cited verbally by the teacher which was congruent with her verbalizations concerning attitudes and needs. Of the various satisfactions cited by each teacher, the only one to constitute a valid clue to her actual behavior appeared to depend on (a) the internalization of a supporting ideology providing the teacher with a justification or mandate for behavior leading to gratification of the underlying motive, and (b) the existence of congruent personality characteristics enabling the teacher to sustain a relationship with the pupils appropriate to the motive in question. Thus, a teacher who is gratified by demonstrations of affection from her pupils may be motivated by an essentially maternal dynamic. However, whether she will in fact behave in an overtly maternal fashion, i.e., whether her maternal motive is actually gratified, depends on (a) whether she embraces a teaching ideology which stresses the importance of warmth and support in the learning process, and (b) the extent to which a capacity for nurturance is characteristic of her interpersonal techniques.

Reformulation of Role Patterns

The next step in the implementation of this position involved the development of scales for the measurement of teaching gratifications and attitudes. In the process of building these scales, our conceptions of the underlying motives were modified in various ways, ultimately leaving us with ten possibilities. These may be summarized briefly as follows:

1. Practical. These people utilize teaching as a means of achieving pragmatic, utilitarian, tangible goals. Involvement in teaching is largely limited to the instrumental value the occupation has for such individuals in terms of hours, pay, vacations, and similar sources of gratification. Since their primary investments are in nonacademic activities, the supporting attitudes must necessarily justify detachment.
2. Status-Striving. These are the individuals, often from lower-class backgrounds, who see the teacher as having a high status, and for whom this perceived status is more important as a source of gratification than the teaching function itself. The significant attitudes in this case reflect a preoccupation with professional dignity and propriety.
3. Nurturant. These teachers are characterized by a pervasive feeling of affection for children, and a desire to assist and support them. These teachers are warm and loving in their relationships with children, devote themselves freely to their pupils' problems, and derive their greatest satisfactions from the reciprocal affection and gratitude of the children. They justify these

activities on the grounds that a child's greatest need is for love.

4. Nondirective. The motive here is to minimize the pupils' expression of dependency on the teacher. These teachers feel rewarded to the extent that their pupils demonstrate capacities for self-direction, and they identify with an ideology which stresses respect for the integrity of the child and justifies the use of pupil-centered classroom techniques in the name of self-actualization.

5. Critical. For these teachers the central theme is a dedication to reform and improvement. These teachers are the organizers and critics of the profession, and they find gratification in the opportunities which exist for championing an unpopular cause. Relevant attitudes involve criticism of contemporary practices in educational administration and a generally negative view concerning the qualifications and motives of authority figures.

6. Preadult-Fixated. These people, feeling essentially inadequate in the role of an adult, prefer the society of children to that of their own agemates. Their greatest pleasure in teaching come from sanctioned opportunities to participate vicariously, and sometimes directly, in the activities of their pupils. Their attitudes reflect idealization of childhood and a justification for identifying with pupils.

7. Orderly. The motive here is to codify and regulate behavior, minimizing the uncertainties inherent in personal interactions. These teachers are characterized by a compulsive preoccupation with rules and procedures, and they are most gratified by demonstrations of bureaucratic timing and organization in the classroom and school. They justify this in terms of the need for developing good pupil habits.

8. Dependent. The focus for these teachers is the inverse of the Critic. Their personal insecurities are expressed in the form of a reliance on support from authority figures, and their major gratifications in teaching come from close supervision and guidance. Supporting attitudes justify compliance and cooperation with authority on the grounds that superiors know best.

9. Exhibitionistic. For this group of teachers the motive is oriented toward personal display and attention-seeking. These teachers achieve satisfaction from opportunities to entertain and captivate their pupils. They have a pervasive need to be admired, and they rationalize their exhibitionistic activities in the classroom on the grounds that clowning, "personality," and showmanship are essential qualities for effective instruction.

10. Dominant. These individuals are concerned with reassurances regarding their own superiority and value. The subordinate status of the pupil is a significant source of gratification for them and they derive considerable pleasure from activities which keep the child in that position to the enhancement of their own. These behaviors are justified in terms of the need to maintain discipline.

Table 1* - 1*

A Summary of Ten Teaching Roles in Terms of Gratification and Attitude Components

Role	Gratifications	Attitudes
1. Practical	Instrumental rewards	Detachment
2. Status-Striving	Prestige	Professional dignity
3. Nurturant	Children's affection	Providing love
4. Nondirective	Children's autonomy	Encouraging self-actualization
5. Critical	Promoting teachers' rights	Reforming schools
6. Preadult-Fixated	Vicarious participation	Identification with children
7. Orderly	Obsessive compulsions	Developing good pupil habits
8. Dependent	Support from superiors	Cooperation with authority
9. Exhibitionistic	Children's admiration	Showmanship
10. Dominant	Children's obedience	Maintaining discipline

*Reproduced from Stern et al, 1960, with the express permission of the editor, Educational and Psychological Measurement.

An heuristic classification of motives, gratifications, and attitudes implied in these brief sketches are summarized for convenience in Table 1-1. It will be noted that the underlying motives have not in every case been fully interpreted, and that the gratifications and attitudes have been phrased more often in terms of the construction placed on them by the teacher than by the psychological observer. It would be more accurate, in fact, to consider these as surface descriptions of ten teaching roles, each of which may be delineated in terms of an underlying unconscious motive (inferred from gratifications obtained in the teaching situation) and buttressed by relevant rationalizations.

Scale Construction

The teacher's own protocols provided a basic pool of items for constructing attitude and gratification scales. Both the gratification and attitude measures ultimately developed consist of 100 items distributed in blocks of ten among the variables listed in Table 1, arranged so that machine scoring with IBM equipment can be done for the ten scales of each instrument in two runs. This economy in processing is achieved at the expense of some flexibility in item arrangement, however; items from the same scale are distributed in subsets of two or three and are separated by ten to twenty items from other scales, but no two items within a subset from the same scale follow one another in immediate succession.

The two tests are self-administering, each requiring from 25 to 40 minutes to complete. The gratification form requires responses to be made on a six-point scale, ranging from "strong dislike, disapproval" to "strong liking, preference, approval." The attitude form is also based on a six-point scale, ranging from "strong disagreement" to "strong agreement." A special answer sheet was designed for this purpose." (Stern et al., 1960, pp. 10-16)

Test Reliability

The two instruments were administered to three groups of subjects--105 freshman at Cortland State Teachers College, 42 seniors in the School of Education at Syracuse University and 98 teachers enrolled in summer session graduate courses at Syracuse University. Fifty-three of the summer session students completed the tests a second time, towards the end of the first month of classes, providing data for the reliability coefficients reported in Table 2-1.

Item Discrimination

An internal estimate of reliability was derived by comparing the upper and lower 27% of the distribution on each scale, following the procedure described by Ebel (1954) using the scale mean to obtain the cutting point for dichotomizing each item.

The 600 indices (200 items for 3 samples) ranged from -.11 to 1.00 with a median of .44. The lowest scale average was .26 (above the value of .20 suggested by Ebel as indicating a significant discrimination) while most of the items were above .40. In general, this procedure showed that all but a handful of items discriminated extremely well between high and low scorers.

Interscale Relationships

"Tetrachoric correlations for the Cortland and Syracuse undergraduate samples were computed on interscale relationships within both the attitude and gratification forms. A simple inspection of the correlation matrices showed that most of the correlations

were positive, as could have been expected from the tendency of the items to tap a consensual core of teacher role constructs. It was also apparent, however, that no one factor could account for any considerable portion of the variance in the matrices.

By rearranging the interscale correlation matrices so as to maximize the number of high correlations appearing along the diagonal and zero entries elsewhere, a number of tentative clusters were extracted. It was noted that the Practical, Dominant, Orderly, and Dependent scales tended to covary together. The Critical scale also correlated with this group, as well as with a separately defined group consisting of the Status-Striving and Exhibitionistic scales. A final covariation appeared to exist for the Exhibitionistic, Nurturant, Preadult-Fixated and Nondirective scales.

This last group of four intercorrelated scales might be appropriately characterized as child-centered, in contrast with the first four which seem clearly teacher-centered in their orientation. It is interesting to note that the middle set of three (Critical, Status-Striving, and Exhibitionistic), which correlate to some extent with either the first or the last group of scales, also appear to offer psychologically meaningful alternatives in terms of their association with a child-centered versus a teacher-centered orientation. A child-centered Critic, for example, is more likely to view the schools as inadequate in their facilities for children, whereas the teacher-centered Critic might condemn them for already having gone too far in mollycoddling both pupils and parents." (Stern et al, 1960, pp. 20-22).

A comparison of mean scores revealed consistent differences between the Syracuse University and Cortland State Teachers College subjects. While both groups rejected the teacher-centered items, the Syracuse Ss did this to a greater extent than the Cortland Ss; at the other extreme, the Syracuse means were higher than Cortland for the nondirective and nurturant scales on both Form A and Form G and on the preadult-fixated and exhibitionistic scales on Form G. This treatment of TPS scores was inconclusive, but it offered promise of a method for investigating differences between teacher-training institutions in teaching practices, attitudes and ideology.

A sample of 42 Syracuse undergraduates who had recently completed their cadet teaching experiences was administered the TPS, and an analysis was made of the relationship between their scores and the grade received for cadet teaching. It was found that the successful Syracuse cadet teacher was characterized by high scores on nurturant and exhibitionistic motives and low scores on practical and dominant motives. Since the grades receiving for cadet teaching were determined by a panel of seven faculty members of the Elementary Education Department it is evident that this experimental approach yielded another method for assessing teacher training ideology. Ratzeburg's study (Chapter VII) utilized a similar procedure with cadet teachers from Oswego, N.Y. State Teachers College.

Finally, the earlier work investigated the relationship between intelligence, as assessed by the Linguistic section of the ACE examination, and scores on the TPS. This was done because of the interest in determining whether particular motives had selective appeal for students of varying intelligence. No significant relationships were found, however, leading to the conclusion that TPS and intelligence scores were not related in any meaningful fashion.

The Present Investigation

Two scales were developed in the initial study for the measurement of gratification and attitudes associated with ten different teaching roles. Test-retest reliability was satisfactory and item analyses revealed significant discriminations for all scales. A consistent ordering of scales was obtained, strongly suggesting

an underlying continuum of teacher- to student-centered motivation. Scale scores were not related to intelligence, but did reveal systematic differences between two teacher training institutions and between successful and non-successful cadet teachers.

The present study continued where the first ended. Using the item analysis conducted earlier as the basis, several non-discriminating items were re-written. A normative group of 629 teachers and students twice completed the revised TPS, the second testing taking place about one month after the first, providing information for both test-retest reliability and for an item analysis.

The major concern of the project was the effect the motives for teaching had on teaching style, teaching effectiveness and classroom climate. Measures of teaching style were obtained through ratings made of teacher behavior by trained observers; several measures of climate were also obtained through observers' ratings. Teaching effectiveness was defined, for this study, in two ways: pupil accessibility for learning, as represented by absence and tardiness records, and achievement test scores. Sociometric tests were administered to furnish information from a source other than observers' ratings on classroom climate.

In this project teachers were assured that a final copy of the report would be made available to every cooperating school, that no names of individuals would ever be made public, that all classroom observations and test scores would be treated confidentially and that no observation or testing would be conducted without prior warning to the school and teacher. In addition to these forms of reassurance, another appeal was made: economic and esprit needs were solicited by offering a consulting stipend of \$75 to the Teachers' Fund in every school that cooperated. Despite our efforts many schools declined to take part; for example, only two elementary schools of the 35 schools in one large consolidated district agreed to take part, while in another system the fourth and fifth grade teachers of five elementary schools, voted not to cooperate. In the Syracuse system an effort was made in the fall of 1958 and 1959 to test every newly hired teacher; despite a signed letter from the superintendent of schools and a spirited plea for cooperation by one of the assistant superintendents at a group meeting only 50% of the teachers returned completed test forms, and it took a follow-up letter to achieve this.

It is the impression of the staff that effective cooperation with the schools needs the vigorous, unambivalent backing of a strong administrator. We found that whenever the administrator wanted this project to make use of the schools' facilities, cooperation was secured, whether the teachers initially liked the idea or not. An open vote by the teachers with no suggestion by the administrator about his own views usually led to a decision not to participate. The most important source of support for the investigator who wishes to use the schools is the school psychologist. In all cases but one, where this project had available the interest of the school psychologist permission was secured. The school psychologist knew the local situation sufficiently to direct the more efficient appeal to the most important sources. And just as important, once the project began he could serve as buffer between school and investigator by acting as interpreter of the project's work.

While the primary concern of the project was with the classroom correlates of TPS scores, a good deal of effort was also expended on the application of the TPS as an instrument to understand certain aspects of education as a profession. Specifically, we investigated the motives of those teachers who remained in teaching and those who did not; the distribution of various motives as a function of age, sex, teaching assignment, experience and type of training obtained; and the relationships between motives and number and type of referrals made to the school psychologist.

Chapter 11

The TPS has been employed as a research device in at least two studies conducted independently of this project. One of these studies is included in this report. Directed by Dr. Fred Ratzeburg of the Oswego State Teachers College, Oswego, N.Y., it related grades received for cadet teaching with TPS scores; the effect of the cadet teaching experience was also examined by means of pre- and post-TPS scores. A study currently in progress is directed by Mr. David Sine, Director of Research of the Syracuse Public Schools; it deals with the relationship between teachers' motives, as reflected in the TPS, and academic achievement of all the fifth grade children in the Syracuse schools.

The tests were readministered at the end of four to six weeks to a second time to the same subjects. The purposes of this preliminary testing was to obtain information regarding the response characteristics of the items and the reliability of the subscales on each of the two TPS forms.

Table 2-1 provides a breakdown of the 629 usable second returns available for test-retest reliability and item discrimination analysis. 392 of these from undergraduate students in education at four different colleges and 237 from teachers in four central New York school systems. It will be noted that the returns from the teachers were over a third more frequent than those from the students. This may be attributable to the fact that the re-test time had to be scheduled during a break in the college year which was taken up with preparations for final examinations. The 86 per cent voluntary second return from the public school teachers is in itself remarkably high, since they too were involved in end-of-term activities, and is an indication of the interest and cooperation obtained from these subjects.

Scale Reliabilities

The test-retest correlations for the 26 TPS scales are listed in Table 2-2. They range from .59 to .75, averaging somewhat lower than the values reported for the sample of teachers obtained from summer session graduate students which is reported in Chapter 1, Table 1-1. The summer session group is a more homogeneous and diversified (and therefore more likely to yield higher reliability) group, but there is no way of knowing whether this is in fact true or not. The difference in results between the two samples is probably due to a number of factors.

Chapter II

Item and Scale Characteristics

Five items (Form G: 21, 34, 56; Form A: 17, 84) were altered in the original Teacher Preference Schedules in an attempt to improve their discriminability, and the revised forms administered to eight groups of education students and public school teachers. The tests were readministered at the end of four to six weeks for a second time to the same subjects. The purposes of this preliminary testing was to obtain information regarding the response characteristics of the items and the reliability of the subscales on each of the two TPS forms.

Table 2-1 provides a breakdown of the 629 usable second returns available for test-retest reliability and item discrimination analysis, 392 of them from undergraduate students in education at four different colleges and 237 from teachers in four central New York school systems. It will be noted that the returns from the teachers were over a third more frequent than those from the students. This may be attributable to the fact that the re-test time had to be scheduled during a period in the college year already taken up with preparations for final examinations. The 86 per cent voluntary second return from the public school teachers is in contrast, remarkably high, since they too were involved in end-of-term activities, and provides an indication of the interest and cooperation obtained from these subjects.

Scale Reliabilities

1. The test-retest correlations for the 20 TPS scales are listed in Table 2-2. They range from .59 to .75, averaging somewhat lower than the values obtained from the sample of teachers obtained from summer session graduate education courses reported in Chapter I, Table 1-1. The summer session group is probably the more diversified (and therefore more likely to yield higher reliability coefficients) but there is no way of knowing whether this is in fact true or the main reason for the difference in results between the two samples. Given the short lengths of these

Table 2 - 1

Teacher Preference Schedule Reliability and Item Analysis Sample Breakdown

Group	1st Test	Retest	% Returns
Cortland State Teachers College	72	67	93
Oneonta State Teachers College	276	197	71
Oswego State Teachers College	116	33	28
Syracuse University School of Education	176	95	54
Total Students	640	392	61
Dolgeville, N.Y. School System	40	40	100
Fayetteville-Manlius, N.Y. School System	79	71	90
Oneida, N.Y. School System	108	91	84
Syracuse, N.Y. School System	48	35	73
Total Teachers	275	237	86
Grand Total	915	629	69

scales (10 items each), the obtained **Table 2 - 2** seem adequate enough.

Item Discriminations Test Re-test Scale Intercorrelations

All three groups--undergraduates, teachers, and summer session students--

were pooled for the analysis of item discrimination, making a total of 777 usable

tests. The discrimination indexes were computed on the basis of responses

Scale	Form A	Form G
1 Practical	.59	.59
2 Status-striving	.69	.64
3 Nurturant	.67	.65
4 Non-directive	.61	.61
5 Rebellious	.60	.71
6 Pre-adult	.75	.75
7 Orderliness	.70	.65
8 Dependency	.68	.64
9 Exhibitionistic	.71	.63
10 Dominance	.70	.67

Form A (see Table 2.3) and are decidedly more acceptable to the respondents:

10 per cent more of the subjects were in agreement with gratifications (any three

with the parallel attitudinal assertions. This is probably a style variable since

the G items have a personal referent (I like-dislike fighting for someone's rights),

whereas the A items impose standards on others (I agree-disagree that most teachers

are too submissive), and the latter are therefore more likely to raise some second

thoughts about the propriety of judging others. The Rebellious scale illustrates this

most clearly, but those for exhibitionism and status-striving also reveal discrepancies

between the acceptability of the sources of gratification as compared with the

rationalizations to justify them.

Interscale Correlations

Tables 2-4, 5, 6 and 7 show the intercorrelations among the gratification and

scales (10 items each), the obtained reliabilities seem adequate enough.

Item Discriminations

All three groups--undergraduates, teachers, and summer session students--were pooled for the analysis of item discrimination, making a total of 727 usable tests. The discrimination indexes were computed on the basis of percentage differences in response to each item between samples consisting of persons with scores in the upper and lower 27 per cent of the total scale distribution. The item responses were dichotomized at that category of the 6-point agreement scale lying closest to the median. These data are reproduced in Appendices 1 and 2. The appendices also report acceptance levels for each item in terms of the percent responses among all three levels of positive agreement: slight, moderate or strong.

The 200 discrimination indices range from 20.4 to 80.1, all positive, with a median of 58.1. This represents an increase of 15 percentage points over the earlier version of these scales, and the elimination of all negative and low positive values. The Form G items discriminate slightly better than those from Form A (see Table 2.3) and are decidedly more acceptable to the respondents; 10 per cent more of the subjects were in agreement with gratifications items than with the parallel attitudinal assertions. This is probably a style variable since the G items have a personal referent (I like-dislike fighting for teachers' rights), whereas the A items impose standards on others (I agree-disagree that most teachers are too submissive), and the latter are therefore more likely to raise some second thoughts about the propriety of judging others. The Rebellious scale illustrates this most clearly, but those for exhibitionism and status-striving also reveal discrepancies between the acceptability of the sources of gratification as compared with the rationalizations to justify them.

Interscale Correlations

Tables 2-4, 5, 6 and 7 show the intercorrelations among the gratification and

Table 2-3

Average Item Discrimination Indices, Percentage Acceptance Levels, Scale Means and Sigmas for Teacher Preference Schedules, Form G958 and A958, Based on a Sample of 727 Education Undergraduates, Public School Teachers, and Summer Session Education Students

Scale	Scale	Item Discrimination		Item Acceptance Level		Scale Mean		Scale Sigma	
		G	A	G	A	G	A	G	A
1. Practical		54.4	46.9	45.6	36.2	33.3	29.0	7.8	6.6
2. Status-Striving		60.0	52.5	83.9	67.8	47.2	41.5	7.2	7.0
3. Nurturant		64.7	61.0	83.4	73.4	47.9	44.2	6.9	7.7
4. Non-Directive		56.7	49.6	78.6	65.1	45.2	41.8	6.6	6.4
5. Rebellious		66.2	53.3	64.7	47.1	39.6	34.4	9.3	7.6
6. Preadult		65.9	56.6	75.0	59.6	43.8	38.4	8.8	8.4
7. Orderliness		54.0	52.2	61.2	55.9	35.5	36.6	6.6	7.1
8. Dependency		54.3	55.7	53.3	57.4	35.3	37.7	6.8	7.5
9. Exhibitionistic		55.9	52.2	78.8	62.7	45.3	38.6	6.8	7.1
10. Dominance		55.2	51.3	48.1	49.1	33.3	33.6	7.6	7.4
Totals		58.7	53.1	67.3	57.4	40.6	37.6	7.4	7.3

Table 2 - 4

Form G Scale Intercorrelations

First Testing

[illegible]

Table 2 (continued)

Form A Scale Intercorrelations

Second Testing

[illegible]

Table 2 - 6
Form A Scale Intercorrelations
First Testing

[illegible]

attitude scales. The scales have been arranged by inspection to maximize positive values along the main diagonal in clusters of interrelated subsets.

Table 2 - 7

Form A Scale Intercorrelations

The correlations are quite similar for both the first and second testing of each form and it is evident that: (1) the underlying structure is unaffected

Scale	1	10	7	8	5	2	9	3	6	4
1 Practical		.56	.34	.09	.36	-.17	.08	-.12	.03	-.14
10 Dominance			.59	.26	.34	.08	.15	.00	.15	-.17
7 Orderliness				.54	.28	.34	.30	.28	.31	.09
8 Dependency					.03	.55	.24	.40	.29	.27
5 Rebellious						.04	.36	.17	.36	.20
2 Status-Striving							.32	.47	.37	.44
9 Exhibitionistic								.43	.59	.47
3 Nurturant									.55	.57
6 Pre-adult										.48
4 Non-directive										

The Dominance items are predicated on the assumption that it is important to maintain discipline in the classroom and to establish obedience training early. The two most discriminating items concern the teacher's belief that there are fewer disciplinary problems when pupils are somewhat fearful of the teacher (A 10-80) and she makes it clear that she won't tolerate any foolishness (6 10-91). From the two supporting scales (Orderliness and Practicalness) come the ideas that the fairest way to evaluate pupils is to keep a careful record of all their oral and written work (A 7-61), and the importance of following specific and carefully organized lesson plans (6 7-88), not being required to lead clubs, serve on committees, or do other work outside of school hours (A 1-66), and putting school problems out of mind as soon as one gets home (6 1-70).

attitude scales. The scales have been arranged by inspection to maximize positive values along the main diagonal in clusters of interrelated subsets.

The correlations are quite similar for both the first and second testing of each form and it is evident that: (1) the underlying structure is unaffected by the interval between the two test periods, and (2) there is no general factor shared in common by all scales. Practicalness, Dominance, and to a lesser extent Orderliness, form a cluster which is essentially orthogonal to the remaining seven scales.

These three tend to be the least preferred, but there are others with similarly low acceptance levels and/or means so this cannot be the critical distinction. The key seems to lie with the teacher's perception of her role. One subset of scales reflects a pragmatic, manipulative attitude towards classroom process, whereas the other is essentially pupil-centered. Scales 10 and 6 are close to the center of each of these respective clusters and the contrast between them-- Dominance versus Pre-adult--does seem like a major source of difference in the orientations of teachers towards children.

The Dominance items are predicated on the assumption that it is important to maintain discipline in the classroom and to establish obedience training early. The two most discriminating items concern the teacher's belief that there are fewer disciplinary problems when pupils are somewhat fearful of the teacher (A 10-80) and she makes it clear that she won't tolerate any foolishness (G 10-91). From the two supporting scales (Orderliness and Practicalness) come the ideas that the fairest way to evaluate pupils is to keep a careful record of all their oral and written work (A 7-61), and the importance of following specific and carefully organized lesson plans (G 7-88), not being required to lead clubs, serve on committees, or do other work outside of school hours (A 1-66), and putting school problems out of mind as soon as one gets home (G 1-70).

factorial invariance, with special references to the 1961. Bulletin, 60-5, 1960.

These items imply a psychological distance between teacher and pupil maintained through the use of techniques that serve to formalize the relationship, frighten the child away, and reduce him to a symbol. The motivation behind this seems to be the teacher's fear that the child as a person may make demands upon her that she will be unable to fulfill. The teacher-centered role minimizes this danger by limiting the child's function in the classroom to that of a passive object operated upon by an orderly, detached despot.

Dependency, Rebelliousness and Status-striving are three remaining scales which tend to be associated with either of the two clusters just described, but primarily with the pupil-centered. These are not part of the central core of either, nor do they form an especially clear cluster among themselves. They seem to reflect some of the variant themes that may also be associated with child-centered attitudes in the classroom but are not essential to them.

TPS Factors

The matrix of intercorrelations between all 20 scales was factored by means of a principal axis program devised by A. W. Bendig of the University of Pittsburgh. The second administration of the scales to the sample of 629 teachers used in the reliability study (Table 2-5 and 2-7) was used for this analysis.

Five factors were extracted with latent roots equalling .96 or more. The five account for 14.15 of the 20.00 units of common variance, or 70.8 per cent of the correlation. These five were rotated by equamax (Saunders, 1960)* to the orthogonal simple structure reproduced in Table 2-8. The communalities average .71 and are of a comparable magnitude with the test-retest reliabilities reported earlier, indicating that these factors account for most of the interpretable non-error variance.

* Saunders, D.R. "The contribution of communality estimation to the achievement of factorial invariance, with special references to the MMPI." ETS Research Bulletin, 60-5, 1960.

The lowest loading that would permit the representation of every scale on at least one factor would be .53. However, loadings of .40 or better were found to contribute easily to the factor interpretations, whereas those between .30 and .39 did not, so a lower bound of .40 was ultimately accepted. These values are underlined in the table.

It will be noted that the same corresponding A and G scales contribute to the loadings on factors 1 and 3, suggesting that the same underlying dimension is being assessed jointly by them in these two cases. Factors 2 and 4 are divided, however, between the two types of scales, each having loadings from essentially the same subset (scales 9, 3, 6 and 4) but one being associated with the attitudinal contents and the other largely with the gratifications. Evidently, in these two cases, the A and G scales are measuring somewhat different things despite their common titles. The fifth factor is unique in that it is limited to two G scales, although the corresponding two A scales do have the highest of their respective loadings.

1	.74	.73	.75	.76	.77
2	.22	.40	.38	.39	.40
3	.06	.14	.15	.16	.17
4	.05	.13	.14	.15	.16
5	.03	.12	.13	.14	.15
6	.16	.30	.29	.30	.31
7	.11	.28	.27	.28	.29
8	.47	.46	.47	.48	.49

Factor 1. Task-Oriented Organization

Table 2 - 8

Rotated TPS Factors		Sample Item				
Scale	1	2	3	4	5	Com
A 1	<u>77</u>	-15	-11	20	-16	69
10	<u>72</u>	-27	23	22	12	71
7	<u>54</u>	-05	<u>56</u>	28	12	70
8	15	10	<u>82</u>	15	-03	74
2	-18	15	<u>73</u>	26	22	71
5	36	-08	-21	<u>68</u>	27	72
9	07	24	16	<u>73</u>	10	63
3	-07	<u>53</u>	<u>41</u>	<u>45</u>	01	65
6	01	29	23	<u>73</u>	11	69
4	-26	<u>45</u>	25	<u>54</u>	00	63
G 1	<u>82</u>	23	-17	-08	-16	79
10	<u>76</u>	-17	24	-13	20	72
7	<u>63</u>	04	<u>49</u>	-14	23	72
8	24	25	<u>54</u>	-06	36	55
2	-22	<u>40</u>	<u>45</u>	04	<u>60</u>	77
5	06	16	-05	16	<u>87</u>	81
9	05	<u>75</u>	09	25	31	73
3	-03	<u>75</u>	26	10	26	71
6	-16	<u>65</u>	12	<u>43</u>	31	74
4	-11	<u>78</u>	-02	24	24	74
	3.47	3.26	2.87	2.67	1.87	

There are both task-oriented and student-oriented factors. The task-oriented factors are those which are related to the task of teaching. The student-oriented factors are those which are related to the student. The task-oriented factors are those which are related to the task of teaching. The student-oriented factors are those which are related to the student.

Factor 1. Task-Oriented Pragmatist

Factor 1. Task-Oriented Pragmatist

Roles	Loading	Component and Sample Item
1.. Practical	.824	G. Instrumental rewards. <u>Item</u> : Finishing all my work during the school day, so that when I go home my time will be my own.
	.766	A. Detachment. <u>Item</u> : It wastes a lot of the teacher's valuable time when he has to deal with problem children himself, instead of being able to refer them immediately to the principal, guidance officer, or school psychologist.
10. Dominant	.757	G. Children's obedience. <u>Item</u> : Running my class with a firm hand.
	.723	A. Maintaining discipline. <u>Item</u> : There are fewer disciplinary problems when pupils are somewhat fearful of the teacher.
7. Orderly	.634	G. Obsessive compulsions. <u>Item</u> : Having pupils do over papers that are not neat.
	.541	A. Developing good pupil habits. <u>Item</u> : Every assignment must specify exactly what the pupils are to do and how they are to do it.

The factor with the largest eigen value is, as might be expected, one based on conventional teacher values. The role dimensions suggested here are primarily teacher-oriented, weighing pedagogical procedures largely in terms of their contribution to the teacher's well-being and efficiency rather than by their contribution to the pupil per se. The implication is that what's good for the teacher should be good for the class, but the pupil's welfare is not of central concern. There are both sadistic and obsessive undertones to this factor which may account for some of the more grotesque stereotypes of teachers in literature, but the highest loadings, those reflecting practical self-interest, discipline and orderliness, may be most simply understood as extensions of this. The gratification and attitude scales pair off as expected for this factor, and it has a high degree of internal consistency.

G. Prestige. Item: Being selected to represent the teaching profession on a civic committee.

Factor 2. Affection-Seeking

<u>Roles</u>	<u>Loading</u>	<u>Component and Sample Item</u>
4. Nondirective	.782	G. Children's autonomy. <u>Item</u> : Inviting pupils to question my decisions and express their own opinions.
	.452	A. Encouraging self-actualization. <u>Item</u> : Children should never be embarrassed or made to feel inferior by a teacher.
3. Nurturant	.751	G. Children's affection. <u>Item</u> : Having a pupil confide in one as a parent.
	.532	A. Providing love. <u>Item</u> : A pupil's first need is for warmth and tenderness.
9. Exhibitionistic	.749	G. Children's admiration. <u>Item</u> : Being appreciated by the children for my sense of humor.
6. Preadult-fixated	.647	G. Vicarious participation. <u>Item</u> : Being invited by the pupils to join in their games or parties.
9. Status-striving	.403	G. Prestige. <u>Item</u> : Being selected to represent the teaching profession on a civic committee.

The second factor is also teacher-centered insofar as it reflects a concern for winning acceptance, love, admiration and recognition. Two sets of attitude and gratification scales pair off together here, but the loadings come primarily from gratification items. Unlike factor 1, there is considerable attention given the pupil, but it involves non-manipulative techniques most likely to ensure a strong positive affective response from them towards the teacher.

Factor 3. Dependency Needs

<u>Roles</u>	<u>Loading</u>	<u>Component and Sample Item</u>
8. Dependent	.825	A. Cooperation with authority. <u>Item</u> : A teacher can seldom go wrong in following his principal's or supervisor's advice.
	.541	G. Support from superiors. <u>Item</u> : Having a principal who takes a close interest in the things I do.
2. Status-striving	.734	A. Professional dignity. <u>Item</u> : Teachers are among the cultural and educational elite of the community.
	.448	G. Prestige. <u>Item</u> : Being selected to represent the teaching profession on a civic committee.

7. Orderly	.561	A. Developing good pupil habits. <u>Item</u> : Every assignment must specify exactly what the pupils are to do and how they are to do it.
	.491	G. Obsessive compulsions. <u>Item</u> : Having pupils do over papers that are not neat.
3. Nurturant	.407	A. Providing love. <u>Item</u> : A pupil's first need is for warmth and tenderness.

Factor 3 is associated with teachers seeking reassurance and support from the people they recognize as their superiors. The attitude and gratification scales pair off systematically at this factor but the largest loadings are all attitudinal, suggesting that those teachers are somewhat more defensive inasmuch as they emphasize the moralistic sanctions for these behaviors rather than the gratifying aspects of the behaviors themselves. The orderliness scales are shared with Factor 1, but their role here seems more in line with the essentially obsessive character of these teachers, as distinguished from its practical function in the former case. The nurturant loading may be interpreted in the same way; the Factor 3 teacher does not want to run the risk of losing the child's affection, although it does not seem likely that she would be capable of giving more than lip-service to the items on this scale.

Factor 4. Vicarious Youth Leader

<u>Roles</u>	<u>Loading</u>	<u>Component and Sample Item</u>
6. Preadult-Fixated	.734	A. Identification with children. <u>Item</u> : Communication between the teacher and his pupils is facilitated if he can get them to accept him as a "pal", sort of as one of them.
	.426	G. Vicarious participation. <u>Item</u> : Being invited by the pupils to join in their games or parties.
9. Exhibitionistic	.728	A. Showmanship. <u>Item</u> : A little clowning is a good way to hold the student's attention and make the learning process more pleasant.
5. Critical	.683	A. Reforming schools. <u>Item</u> : Many of the most important decisions affecting the schools are made by people who know nothing about education.

- | | | |
|-----------------|------|---|
| 4. Nondirective | .545 | A. Encouraging self-actualization. <u>Item:</u> Children should never be embarrassed or made to feel inferior by a teacher. |
| 3. Nurturant | .447 | A. Providing love. <u>Item:</u> A pupil's first need is for warmth and tenderness. |

The main thrust of this factor seems to be towards the gaining of student acceptance by being one of them, sharing their idiom, taking up their causes, respecting their dignity, and loving them. It is of interest that this factor, despite its seeming unconventionality, should emerge from a very large group of teachers in an essentially conservative section of rural upstate New York, sampled some five years ago. The substratum of values on which the present wave of school and social welfare reforms may be drawing support is clearly suggested here. The manifest behavior of these teachers should be strongly pupil-oriented, even more so than Factor 2 and their championing of youth's purposes seemingly unselfish and disinterested.

Factor 5. Union Representative

<u>Roles</u>	<u>Loading</u>	<u>Component and Sample Item</u>
5. Critical	.869	G. Promoting teachers' rights. <u>Item:</u> Fighting for better pay, sickness and accident prevention, retirement provisions, etc., for teachers.
2. Status-striving	.599	G. Prestige. <u>Item:</u> Being selected to represent the teaching profession on a civic committee.

The last factor also reflects a reformist commitment, in this case towards teachers rather than pupils. The concern here is with the improvement of working conditions rather than of educational practices. As in the case of factors 2 and 3, factors 4 and 5 also suggest a polarity. Both 4 and 5 involve winning acceptance by offering oneself as the champion of another's cause. As before, however, one orients toward the pupils as the primary source of gratification and the other toward the adult community. Factors 2-5 all suggest indirect maneuvers for achieving narcissistic gratifications, not necessarily consciously acceptable to their proponents. Factor 1 stands alone in being openly self-serving

and non-altruistic; it also implies the highest level of personal autonomy. These would be interesting relationships to explore in further study.

The influence of teaching experience on motives has been investigated in three independent studies. The findings are reported below.

Discussion

Motives of pre-service education majors versus teacher motives. These were shown to enter a profession should show different motivational patterns than those actively engaged in the profession. The IPS scores of 392 undergraduate education majors were compared with the scores of 237 teachers. The undergraduates scored significantly higher on three of the four pupil-centered motives (exhibits discrete teacher types and studying their classroom impact, as described in the chapters which follow.

The conclusion that undergraduates are more pupil-centered than teachers must be tempered by the observation that the undergraduates were all necessarily drawn from the same population as the teachers. Frederick L. Stodolsky, of the State University of New York State Teachers College, conducted a longitudinal study of the effects of experience, using two measures on the same population. He administered both scales of the IPS to 16 female and 11 male undergraduates immediately before they entered their student-teaching semester. Comparing pretest and posttest scores, Stodolsky found that the trainees did not show an increase on seven of the eight scales of the IPS and that teacher-centered motives did decrease on three of the eight scales. These findings (see Table 1) lead us to conclude that teaching experience strengthens teacher-centered motives and weakens pupil-centered motives.

The relationship of motives to continuation in a career. If the individual is attracted to teaching because of motives which are not conducive to teaching should quickly produce dissatisfaction and, perhaps, resignation. If personal

¹ This chapter was published separately as "Changes in Motives as a Result of Teaching," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1953, 2, 95-104.

CHAPTER III¹

The Effects of Experience on Teaching Motives

The influence of teaching experience on motives has been investigated in three independent studies. The findings are reported below.

Motives of undergraduate education majors versus teacher motives. Those who are about to enter a profession should show different motivational patterns than those actively engaged in the profession. The TPS scores of 392 undergraduate education majors were compared with the scores of 237 teachers. The undergraduates scored significantly higher on three of the four pupil-centered motives (exhibitionistic, nondirective, and preadult-fixated), while the teachers scored higher on all four teacher-centered motives (practical, dominant, orderly, and dependent).

The conclusion that undergraduates are more pupil-centered than teachers must be tempered by the observation that the undergraduates were not necessarily drawn from the same population as the teachers. Frederick Ratzeburg, of the Oswego, New York State Teachers College, completed a longitudinal study of the effects of experience, using two measures on the same population. He administered both forms of the TPS to 78 female and 21 male undergraduates immediately before and after their student-teaching semester. Comparing pretest and posttest scores, Ratzeburg found that the trainees had increased on seven of the eight (based on Forms G and A) teacher-centered motives and decreased on three of the eight pupil-centered motives (see Table 3 - 1). Thus, we may conclude that teaching experience strengthens teacher-centered motives and weakens pupil-centered motives.

The relationship of motives to continuation in a teaching career. If the individual is attracted to teaching because of unrealistic goals, experience in teaching should quickly produce dissatisfaction and a desire to leave. If personal

¹ This chapter was published separately by Masling, J. and Stern, G. under the title, "Changes in Motives as a Result of Teaching," Theory into Practice, 1963, 2 95-104.

TABLE 3 - 1

**The Effects of Experience on Motives:
Before and After the Student-Teaching Semester**

MOTIVE	GRATIFICATIONS (Form G)	ATTITUDES (FORM A)
Practical	Posttest higher (females)	Posttest higher (females)
Dominant	Posttest higher (both males and females)	Posttest higher (both males and females)
Orderly	Posttest higher (both males and females)	Posttest higher (both males and females)
Dependent	Posttest higher (females)	
Nurturant		Posttest lower (females)
Exhibitionistic		
Nondirective		Posttest lower (both males and females)
Preadult-fixated		Posttest lower (females)
Status-striving	Posttest higher (females)	
Critical		Posttest lower (both males and females)

It appears that with work experience the females tend to move at the extreme of goals can be met best in education, however, there should be no such unrest and, therefore, a lengthy career in teaching can be predicted. This hypothesis was tested through the co-operation of the Syracuse Board of Education, which made available employment cards for all teachers hired in the fall of 1958. Of this group, 78 (50 per cent) completed the TPS. Two years later, 41 of these teachers

were still teaching in the Syracuse system, while 37 had resigned for a variety of reasons.

A comparison of the scores of the group who had resigned with the scores of those who remained revealed that the resigned group scored significantly higher on the practical motive (placing value almost exclusively on the utilitarian aspects of teaching, such as hours and salary). The "remain" group scored higher on the critical and status-striving motives, possibly because these can be satisfied adequately in the school.

Sex differences in teaching motives. It is commonly assumed that males and females have different motives for arriving at the same career choices. It seems reasonable that males would want to reform and improve the world (the critical motive), while females would be nurturant and inclined to receive supervision (the dependency motive). To test these hypotheses, the TPS scores of 48 male undergraduate majors were compared with the scores of 344 female undergraduates. As would be expected, three of the four pupil-centered motives (nurturant, non-directive, and preadult-fixated) show significant differences favoring the females.

The neat observation that females are more pupil-centered than males needs to be qualified, however. With teaching experience, the motivational patterns for men and women teachers change differently. When the TPS scores of 58 male teachers were compared with the scores of 179 female teachers, females still scored higher on two of the four pupil-centered motives (nurturant and non-directive), but they also scored higher on two of the teacher-centered motives (orderly and dependent). It appears that with work experience the females tend to score at the extremes of most of the motivational scales. Females not only show the expected interest in dependency and nurturance, but also satisfaction from being orderly and from the status received from a career in teaching. However, more males than females are a result of experience: (2) motives differ between male and female teachers, and critical of the schools.

(1) the subspecialties within education have a differential appeal for different teachers. The motivational differences between the scores and between the

The effects of teaching specialty: elementary versus secondary teachers.

Subspecialties within a career may have different appeals. In education, the job functions of the elementary-school teacher obviously differ considerably from the functions of the secondary-school teacher. The elementary teacher is usually with her class all day and thus becomes much more personally involved with the pupils; she must deal with personal and emotional growth as much as with academic learning. The secondary teacher sees a new group of pupils each period and is generally less involved with any one student; she is usually expected to emphasize academic progress, sometimes at the expense of personal-social development.

A comparison of the TPS scores of elementary and secondary teachers indicates that elementary teachers are significantly higher on the pupil-centered motives: nurturant, exhibitionistic, nondirective, and preadult-fixated. They are also higher on dependency. The secondary teachers are significantly higher only on the dominance motive.

These data, however, are confounded by the presence of both male and female teachers in the same sample: the meaningful differences between the elementary and secondary teachers may be due to male-female differences. Accordingly, the male teachers were removed from this analysis, and a new series of t-tests was computed. The results support the notion that the elementary teachers are primarily pupil-centered, regardless of sex. They showed significantly higher scores on the nurturant, exhibitionistic, nondirective, preadult-fixated, and critical motives. Secondary teachers do not differ from elementary teachers on teacher-centered motives except for scoring higher on the dominance scale.

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

Three general findings were reported in this chapter: (1) motives change as a result of experience; (2) motives differ between male and female teachers; and (3) the subspecialties within education have a differential appeal for different teachers. The motivational differences between the sexes and between the

CHAPTER IV

elementary and secondary teacher serve to emphasize that there is no single stereotype of "the teacher". Recruitment of teachers need not be based exclusively on the appeal of working with children; other motives appear to be equally meaningful to potentially excellent teachers. There is a variety of possible careers in education, each of which may serve a different set of underlying motives.

These observations seem commonplace, but they have important consequences for the recruitment and training of teachers. The high rate of attrition among teachers is expensive not only for the training institution and the school systems but also for the individual teacher who finds, too late, that he is bitterly disappointed in teaching and that he might have considered another career. The teacher with second thoughts about his career also represents an expense for his pupils who have to contend with an instructor who would prefer to do anything but teach, but who finds he has no way to escape from the only occupation in which he is trained. A high rate of attrition will continue as long as potential teachers are allowed to see only the tinsel and glitter of teaching without knowing something of the inevitable realities. It is unfortunate that the idealism and the pupil interest found in the beginning teacher are so often dulled on the sharp edge of reality.

Still, another obstacle to constructing classroom instruction is the indirect effects certain of the teacher's motives had on his class. While some motives, e.g., dominance, aggressiveness, nurturance, were hypothesized to exert a direct, explicit influence, other motives, e.g., status-striving, dependence, rebellion, did not need to be expressed through direct contact with children. Thus, we could expect a dominating teacher to show dominating classroom behavior, but we had no way of knowing how status-striving needs, for example, would be worked out in class. In general, we found that observational dimensions could be used for those motives which depended on children for gratification, but no useful dimensions were discovered for those motives which were directed toward adults (dependence) or

CHAPTER IV

Classroom Observation

A major hypothesis underlying this research was that the teacher's motives would be reflected in her classroom behavior and in the responses of the children toward her. The first task in this phase of the study, then, was to construct measurement devices which would permit collection of classroom data.

There were a number of difficulties in preparing the observation scales. Some highly significant teacher-pupil interactions (e.g., a teacher striking a child) occur so infrequently that they could not be utilized formally or quantitatively. For our purposes it was necessary to use dimensions upon which all the teachers could be placed; an event which occurred with the frequency of 1 time in 1000 would be significant because of its rarity, but could not be treated statistically.

Other important events in the classroom occur so rapidly or in such subtle form that a direct frequency count of them is not possible. Examples of these events are restlessness and daydreaming, both important aspects of pupils' behavior, but difficult for an observer sitting in the back of the room to assess with any degree of accuracy.

Still another obstacle in constructing classroom instruments concerned the indirect effects certain of the teacher's motives had on the class. While some motives, e.g., dominance, orderliness, nurturance, were hypothesized to exert a direct, explicit influence, other motives, e.g., status-striving, dependence, rebellion, did not need to be expressed through direct contact with children. Thus, we could expect a dominating teacher to show dominating classroom behavior, but we had no way of knowing how status-striving needs, for example, would be worked out in class. In general, we found that observational dimensions could be used for those motives which depended on children for gratification, but no useful dimensions were discovered for those motives which were directed toward adults (dependence) or

society (status-striving). The influence of these latter motives might be indirectly assessed through measure of class morale, tardiness, etc., but no direct observation of these motives was possible. The rating schedules finally utilized in the classroom, therefore, did not provide a direct assessment of all ten teacher motives.

Two other difficulties in constructing the observational procedures proved to be closely inter-dependent. We wanted instruments that (1) could be reliably used (2) in assessing meaningful classroom behavior. To some extent these goals were mutually exclusive. The more we attempted to focus on global, molar, meaningful behavior the more inter-observer reliability suffered. When attention then turned to the development of scales which would yield high inter-observer reliability, it was found that the classroom behavior which could be observed most reliably consisted of segmented, discrete units of behavior, usually muscular.

The two instruments eventually developed were a compromise between the various competing goals and obviously were less than optimal. Several broad dimensions of classroom behavior were outlined and some aspects of each were sampled: the academic and non-academic relationship of teacher and pupil; the method and force used by the teacher to control the class; the physical freedom of the child in class; the nature of the classroom climate.

Two separate observational forms were used, one to rate the teacher's behavior and one for the pupil's behavior. In order to reduce fatigue in a job which quickly became routine and satiating, a rest period for the observer was built into the observing procedure. The following time schedule was used for the collection of classroom data: five minutes of observation using the teacher rating form, five minutes using the pupil rating form, five minutes rest. To insure comparability of time units from observer to observer and from teacher to teacher, the five minute units were determined through the use of a stop watch.

Except for one teacher who asked not to be observed for a second day, each of the 29 teachers in this sample were observed for two complete school days. Since many of the activities during the school day were not germane to this research (e.g., gym period, assembly) only a portion of the school day was sampled. The following table presents mean and total time of observation:

Table 4 - 1

Summary of Classroom Observation Time

Number of teachers observed	23 ¹
Number of five minute observation units: pupil scale	771
Number of five minute observation units: teacher scale	771
Total time of classroom observation	7710 minutes (128.5 hours)
Mean number of five minute observation units per teacher: pupil scale	33.50
Mean number of five minute observation units per teacher: teacher scale	33.50
Mean time spent observing in each classroom:	335 minutes (5.58 hours)

The scales used for classroom observation are described below, with examples given when necessary for clarification. Sample scales are included in Appendix C. When used in the classroom, abbreviations were used on the scales to reduce the possibility of a teacher's learning the specific interests of the observer.

Pupil Scales

I. In each five minute period the observer was required to tally each of the following acts:

A. Number of times pupils whisper to each other

¹ Six male teachers were also observed for about the same period of time, but since their TPS scores were so systematically different from the female teachers they were excluded from further analysis.

B. Number of times pupils leave their seats:

1. Without permission
2. With permission, pupil requests (Child asks if he can go to the toilet)
3. With permission, teacher requests (Teacher asks child to go to the blackboard)
4. Teacher commands

C. Number of aggressive contacts

1. Direct aggression

- a. pupil to pupil (hitting, pushing, throwing objects)
- b. pupil to teacher (shoving, physically resisting)
- c. teacher to pupil (pushing pupil into line)

2. Inferred aggression

- a. pupil to pupil (name-calling, teasing)
- b. pupil to teacher (groaning, slamming books, irritated expressions)
- c. teacher to pupil (sarcasm, repeatedly calling on a student who has not volunteered, threatening punishment).

II. Classroom climate rating scales. At the end of each five minute period the observer rated each variable below on a five point rating scale. The descriptions of the extreme scores are given below.

A. Freedom

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. 1. Consistent noise level regardless of class activity | 5. Bursts into noise when class is not occupied |
| 2. 1. Pupils whisper to each other openly | 5. Pupils whisper covertly |

B. Willingness

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. 1. All pupils follow general directions promptly | 5. Many pupils follow directions hesitantly |
| 2. 1. Frequent, overt acts of helpfulness by many pupils | 5. Complete absence of helpful pupil acts |

C. Tension

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. 1. Pupils obviously enjoy themselves | 5. Many pupils seem openly fearful |
| 2. 1. Frequent laughter from many pupils | 5. No pupil laughter |
| 3. 1. Pupils show spontaneous initiative.
High degree of involvement | 5. Pupils show apathy or restraint. Low degree of involvement |

III. The observer was required to check one of the following categories at the end of each five minute period to summarize the activity which had taken place during that time span.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| A. Teacher asking pupil questions: | a. General, to class as whole |
| | b. Specific, to individual pupils |
| B. Pupils working by themselves: | a. Completely individual activity |
| | b. Teacher gives individual help |
| C. Teacher lecturing to class. | |
| D. Pupils working in groups: | a. Teacher remains with one group, others independent |
| | b. Teacher circulates among groups |
| E. Pupils demonstrate work: | a. Blackboard work |
| | b. Read papers to class |
| F. Rest period | |
| G. Change of activity | |
| H. Play or physical education period | |
| I. Other (specify) | |

III. Dependent aspects of the relationship

- | |
|---|
| A. Teacher questions a child's decision ("Are you sure you want to do it this way?") |
| B. Teacher refused a child's request for help ("I think you can do that by yourself") |

Teacher Scales

The observer was required to tally every incident that was subsumed in the following categories during each five minute period:

I. Teacher-pupil academic relationship

- A. Teacher praises, encourages child's work
- B. Teacher criticizes, reproves child's work
- C. Teacher corrects child's work without any affective evaluation
("It would look better if you did it this way").

II. Teacher's manner of influencing the children

A. Disciplinary problems

1. Direct attempts at discipline

- a. To the child ("Sit down"; "stop talking")
- b. To the class ("This class is much too noisy")

2. Indirect attempts at discipline

- a. To the child ("I think it would be better if you returned to your seat")
- b. To the class ("We could do more work if the whispering stopped")

B. Nondisciplinary attempts at influence

1. Direct attempts at nondisciplinary influence

- a. To the child ("Please go to the board")
- b. To the class ("Turn to page 48")

2. Indirect attempts at nondisciplinary influence

- a. To the child ("You do so much better when you take your time")
- b. To the class ("Wouldn't your parents be pleased if everyone brought a library book home today?")

III. Dependent aspects of the relationship

The following reliabilities were obtained:

- A. Teacher questions a child's decision ("Are you sure you want to do it this way?")
- B. Teacher refused a child's request for help ("I think you can do that by yourself")

IV. Positive contact between teacher and child

A. Affection

1. Physical affection (hugging, arm around shoulder)
2. Nonphysical affection ("My, you do look nice today")

B. Joking

C. Smiles, laughs

V. Use of visual aids. Any use the teacher made of movies, slides, etc. was tallied here.

VI. Talks to observer. Any explicit reference to the observer was tallied here.

Observers were trained in the use of these scales by being assigned to an experienced observer for work in our "sample" school. Because we wished to reduce the threat of being observed as much as possible we employed, whenever possible, only those who had some teaching experience; in this way, the observer could be introduced as someone who had been a teacher. A total of seven observers were used in this phase of the study. Of these, three were second semester seniors in the Syracuse University School of Education, three were graduate students in psychology who had previously been trained and employed as public school teachers, and one was a graduate student in psychology with no experience in teaching. At this level of sophistication it was found that two days of sustained training was sufficient to obtain satisfactory inter-observer agreement.

A formal reliability study was conducted using two of the undergraduate education observers. These two observers made independent ratings of six teachers; each teacher was observed for 30 minutes, 15 minutes (3 observation periods) on both the Teacher and Pupil Rating scales. Each teacher was then ranked on each dimension and a Kendall tau correlation was computed on the rankings based on their mean ratings. The following reliabilities were obtained:

Table 4 - 2

Inter-observer Rating Reliability

Pupil Category	Kendall tau
IA. Number of pupil whispers	1.00
IB1 Leave seats without permission	.99
IB2 Leave seats with permission, pupil requests	(insufficient occurrences)
IB3 Leave seats with permission, teacher requests	1.00
IB4 Leave seats, teacher commands	(insufficient occurrences)
IC1 Aggressive contacts, pupil-pupil	.90
IC2 Aggressive contacts, pupil-teacher	(insufficient occurrences)
IC3 Aggressive contacts, teacher-pupil	(insufficient occurrences)
IIA1 Freedom-noise level	1.00
IIA2 Freedom-whispering	.99
IIB1 Willingness-follow instructions	.90
IIB2 Willingness-helpful acts	.67
IIC1 Tension-enjoyment vs. fearfulness	.73
IIC2 Tension-laughter	.63
IIC3 Tension-spontaneity vs. apathy	.87
Teacher Category	
I. Teacher-pupil academic relationship	.72
II. Teacher's influence attempts	
A. Disciplinary	.78
B. Nondisciplinary	1.00
III. Dependent aspects	(insufficient occurrences)
IV. Positive contact between teacher and child	1.00
V. Use of visual aids	.86
VI. Talks to observer	(insufficient occurrences)

Considering that these reliabilities were obtained on a 15 minutes sample of observation, the level of observer agreement was surprisingly high. Six categories were not observed frequently enough during the 15 minute period of observations to enable an estimate of reliability to be made and several subcategories had to be grouped in order to obtain a reliability figure. However, in the formal data collection stage, the mean time of observation for the teachers was 5.58 hours, allowing ample opportunity for most of the relevant behavior to be manifested. Clearly, it is possible to make reliable classroom observations, although the usefulness of that which is observed is yet another matter.

One important problem involved in classroom observation is usually discussed only anecdotally. This concerns the effect of the observer on the teacher and the class. Various investigators have solved the problem to their own satisfaction, but there has been no experimental demonstration of the consequences for teacher and pupil of stationing an observer in the class, equipped with clipboard, stop watch, coded categories and fixed, scientific expression. The usual solution reached by investigators is to discard the first n minutes of observation, assuming that after n minutes the class and teacher become as unaware and indifferent to the observer's presence as they will ever get.

In the present study, an attempt was made to investigate systematically and quantitatively the effect of the observer. Means were computed on 10 of the ratings for the first 15 minutes of observation (periods 1-3), the second 15 minutes of observation (periods 4-6) and the third (periods 7-9). The mean scores of periods 1-3 were then correlated with the means of the 7th through last period of observation, the total time varying slightly from class to class, the scores of the second three periods were similarly correlated with the scores of the 7th through last observations, etc. If the hypothesis that the effect of the observer gradually wears off is correct, the correlations thus computed would show an increase in magnitude over time. Table 4-3 presents the results of this analysis performed on the 10 rating categories selected for this purpose:

Table 4 - 3

The Effects of The Observers Over Time

Category	Rating samples		
	1-3 vs. 7-n	4-6 vs. 7-n	7-9 vs. 10-n
I Pupil Behavior			
IA. Whispering	.52	.73	.45
IBI Leave seat without permission	.55	.77	.56
IIA1 Class climate--freedom	.43	.61	.67
IIB1 Class climate--willingness	.69	.63	.64
IIC1 Class climate--tension	.59	.64	.75
II Teacher Behavior			
IC. Teacher corrects, no evaluation	.11	.08	.03
IIA1a Direct disciplinary attempt at influencing child	.24	.66	.53
IIA2a Indirect disciplinary attempt at influencing child	.14	.32	.00
IIB1a Nondisciplinary attempt at direct influence of child	.72	.71	.46
IVC Laughs, smiles	.70	.60	.61

These correlations show no discernible pattern over time. Two categories show increasing correlations as later samples are studied, three show steadily decreasing correlations, four categories increase from the first three observations to the second three only to drop again when the third three observations are considered, and the correlations for one category drop and then increase. The only conclusions that can be reached from these data are that the variables under study occur episodically and that the effect of the observer is complex and seems to effect various aspects of teacher and pupil behavior differentially. Arbitrarily selecting a given point in time as the place to begin using observers' ratings is not supported by the results of this study. This problem, crucial to any attempt at the observation of classroom behavior, is worthy of independent study.

Since we could not control for these factors the results of the classroom interaction necessarily represented an interaction of teacher actions with these uncontrolled background factors.

Chapter V

Results

The underlying hypothesis of this investigation concerned the relationship between a teacher's personality and her performance in class as this would be reflected in the behavior and achievement of her pupils. Two measures of teacher personality were employed--the TPS and the Stern Activities Index (AI). The dependent variables consisted of the observers' ratings of teacher behavior and pupil behavior; achievement of the pupils in spelling and vocabulary; measures of pupil tardiness and absence; and three sociometric measures--the mean number of pupils liked in each class, the mean number disliked in each class and the number of times the teacher was mentioned in response to a question concerning which adults the child would talk to if he had a personal problem.

In a laboratory study of this hypothesis various controls would have been utilized to insure the best possible conditions for obtaining favorable data. Since we had decided to maximize meaningfulness of this study by conducting a field investigation of this hypothesis, these controls were not available, so that precision of design suffered somewhat. Specifically, we could not control for differences in school systems. Under ideal conditions the data should have been gathered in one school system, keeping constant the ideology of educational theory, money available for educational needs, number of pupils per class, etc. We were not able to find sufficient teachers in one system, necessitating the use of 6 different systems, ranging from a large city system to a rural system with stops en route at several suburban systems.

A laboratory study would also have controlled for such teacher variables as age, sex, place of training and years of experience. This was an obvious impossibility for us. Since we could not control for these factors the results of the classroom interaction necessarily represented an interaction of teacher motives with these uncontrolled background factors.

To allow for an estimate of the importance of these two uncontrolled factors --school system and teacher background--a one-way analysis of variance compared them across five classroom measures: mean number of sociometric likes per class, mean number of sociometric dislikes per class, mean numbers of absences and tardiness per class and number of times the teacher was mentioned as an adult the child could discuss a problem with. Teacher background (teacher type, age, years of experience, place of training and grade taught) was not related to any of the five dependent variables beyond that which might have been expected by chance. However, there was strong support for the importance of the school system on the dependent variables. Significant F ratios were found between the six school systems and mean number of sociometric dislikes, tardiness records and the number of times the teacher was mentioned as an adult the child could discuss a problem with.

The remainder of this chapter reports results which are limited by virtue of this relationship between the particular school system and the dependent variables under study. To have partialled out this relationship would have allowed more opportunity for teacher personality to have influenced classroom behavior and by virtue of this would also have presented a distorted picture of these relationships as they are found in natural settings.

Selection of the sample of teachers to be observed was limited to the 86 teachers who agreed to take part in this study. These 86 teachers taught the fourth and fifth grades in six different school systems in Central New York State. A large number of school systems were invited to participate in this study and six systems agreed to do so. For each of the 86 teachers three test scores were available: TPS Form A, TPS Form G and the Stern Activities Index (Stern, 1963). The first step in selecting from this group consisted of developing profiles for each teacher on her scores on the two TPS scales, showing relative position on each of the 10 motives. It had been our hope to find a sufficient number of teachers whom we could match for scores on each scale, but it soon became clear

that the distribution of scores would not allow this. (Much later developments in computer technology and factor analytic theory provided a methodology that would have permitted better matching). When fine matching proved impossible a more coarse discrimination was used in which teachers were first sorted into (a) those who scored high on at least three teacher centered scales, (b) those who scored high on at least three pupil centered scales, (c) those who scored low on at least three teacher centered scales, (d) those who scored low on at least three pupil centered scales and (e) three groups of those who had mixed profiles. This system of grouping teachers produced the following nine cell table (including two "response set" categories of "yea-sayers" and "nay-sayers").

Table 5 - 1

Distribution of teachers on TPS scores

	Pupil-Centered		
	High	Middle	Low
Teacher Centered	High cell 1 N = 15	cell 2 N = 10	cell 3 N = 8
	Middle cell 4 N = 4	cell 5 N = 6	cell 6 N = 11
	Low cell 7 N = 6	cell 8 N = 4	cell 9 N = 22

After these distinctions had been made cells 2, 3 and 6 were grouped to form a "teacher centered" category; this sample of 29 included all those whose scores on the teacher centered scales of form A were higher than on the pupil-centered scales. Similarly, cells 4, 7 and 8 were grouped to form a "pupil-centered" category of 14 teachers. From these 43 cases, 29 were selected on the basis of congruent personality dimensions revealed by their AI scores.

This method produced a sample of 29 teachers, of whom 6 were male and 23 female. Because of the obvious differences in teaching style and response to the teacher as a function of gender, it was decided to observe only the 23 female

teachers in their classes. The small size of the sample placed severe limitations on the chances for the experimental hypotheses to receive statistical support, but the realistic difficulties in obtaining a larger sample who would agree to be observed prevented any effective remedy.

Hypothesis 1. The TPS scores will relate to the pupils' classroom behavior.

In Chapter IV of this report is a description of the classroom observer's instruments that were used to sample both the teachers' and pupils' behavior during the course of the school day. A total of 15 measures were taken of the pupils' behavior. These measures were correlated with the 20 TPS scores, producing a 15 x 20 matrix. Only 10 of these 300 correlations were significantly greater than zero at the .05 level or better. It is safe to conclude, therefore, that TPS scores did not relate to these measures of pupil behavior.

Hypothesis 2. The TPS scores will relate to the teachers' classroom behavior.

A total of 19 teacher measures were taken of the teachers' behavior, producing a 19 x 20 matrix. Of these, 33 correlations were significant at the .05 level or better, whereas only about 20 significant correlations could have been expected by chance. They are listed below:

Table 5 - 2

Teacher Measure	TPS Scale	Correlation
Teacher praises student work	Status striving (Form A)	.51*
	Dependence (Form A)	-.46*
Teacher corrects work, without evaluation	Practical (Form G)	-.41*
Teacher directly disciplines child	Practical (Form A)	.51*
	Nurturant (Form A)	-.47*
	Non-directive (Form G)	-.71**
	Rebellious (Form A)	.46*
	Dominant (Form A)	.62**

(cont'd.)

* .05 level

** .01 level

Teacher Measure	TPS Scale	Correlation
Teacher indirectly disciplines child	Practical (Form A)	.46*
	Nurturant (Form A)	-.55**
	Nurturant (Form G)	-.60**
	Non-directive (Form G)	-.47*
	Dominant (Form A)	.51*
	Dominant (Form G)	.44*
Nondisciplinary direct teacher influence at child	Practical (Form A)	.41*
	Nurturant (Form A)	-.56**
	Nurturant (Form G)	-.40*
	Dominance (Form A)	.41*
	Pre-adult fixated (Form G)	-.40*
Nondisciplinary direct teacher influence at class	Nurturant (Form A)	-.41*
Nondisciplinary indirect teacher influence at child	Status-striving (Form G)	-.42*
Nondisciplinary indirect teacher influence at class	Orderly (Form A)	-.40*
	Dependent (Form A)	-.70**
	Dominant (Form G)	-.47*
	Pre-adult fixated (Form A)	.46*
Teacher questions child's decisions	Nurturant (Form G)	.43*
Teacher refuses child's request for help	Exhibitionistic (Form A)	-.45*
Teacher shows child physical affection	Rebellious (Form A)	.40*
Teacher jokes with child	Pre-adult fixated (Form G)	-.43*
	Orderly (Form G)	-.41*
Teacher smiles, laughs in class	Practical (Form G)	-.40*
	Orderly (Form G)	-.53**
	Dependent (Form A)	-.47*
	Dominant (Form G)	-.44*
Use of visual aids		

* .05 level

** .01 level

The most outstanding general result to emerge from this matrix was for the teacher-oriented scales (practical, dependent, orderly and dominant) to be directly related to direct and indirect attempts at discipline, while the pupil-oriented scales (nurturant, non-directive, pre-adult fixated and exhibitionist) were negatively related to this criterion. Of the 40 correlations relating direct and indirect attempts at influence to the TPS scales, 11 were significant and of these 11, 6 were positive correlations between teacher centered scales and the criteria and 6 were negative correlations between the pupil centered scales and the criteria.

The other criteria of teacher behavior related less well to the TPS scales, although 5 of the 20 correlations between nondisciplinary direct teacher influence of a child ("please go to the board") were significantly greater than zero; of these 5 correlations, two teacher oriented scales correlated positively and three pupil centered scales correlated negatively, with the criterion.

Hypothesis 2 can thus be considered partially confirmed, insofar as there appear to be nonrandom relationships between teacher attitudes and teacher behavior. Hypothesis 1 found no support in this study. The gap between teacher attitudes and pupil behavior was too great to allow for confirmation, although an intermediate step--teacher behavior--did relate to teacher attitudes.

Hypothesis 3. The TPS scores will relate to academic achievement. Two measures of academic achievement were available for each student--spelling and vocabulary improvements over the school year. Correlations were computed between the TPS scores and these two measures of achievement, holding the effects of IQ constant. There was no evidence of statistically significant results, beyond that which would have been expected by chance.

Hypothesis 4. The TPS scores will relate to sociometric results, absences and tardiness records. Correlations were computed between these measures and TPS scores, producing no results that could not have been expected by chance.

Hypothesis 5. The AI Scores will relate to the pupils' classroom behavior.

The 15 pupil dimensions were correlated with the 30 AI scales, producing a matrix of 450 correlations, of which 31 were significantly greater than zero, in contrast to the 23 expected by chance. Some areas of pupil behavior were consistently found to relate to AI scores. For example, aggressive contacts from pupil against the teacher were related to abasement ($r=.42$), affiliation ($r = -.44$) and play ($r = -.40$) suggesting that the children were aggressive against the teachers who were work-oriented, unfriendly and lacking in self-assurance.

Whispering among the children was significantly related in an inverse direction with abasement, narcissism and understanding. Apparently the more self-assured, the less narcissistic and the more concerned with learning a teacher is, the less whispering occurs in class.

A pattern of significant relationships was found between certain teacher personality measures and the psychological climate in her class:

	Follow directions hesitantly	Absence of helpful pupil acts
Abasement		-44*
Change	-56**	-61**
Ego Achievement	-60**	
Energy	-47*	-47*
Exhibitionism	-49*	-41*

Promptness in following directions and the frequency of overt acts of helpfulness by many pupils was a function of the teacher's flexibility and drive.

Another aspect of classroom climate--the variables which include pupil fearfulness, laughter and apathy--showed consistent relationships to teacher personality:

* .05 level

** .01 level

* .05 level

** .01 level

	Pupils openly fearful	No Laughter	Pupil apathy, restraint, lo involvement
Deference			42*
Dominance	-40*		
Ego Achievement	-46*	-40*	-62**
Emotionality			-51*
Narcissism		-54**	-48*
Sensuousness			53**
Understanding		-41*	-40*

Where the teachers were emotionally labile, objective, and achievement-oriented, the pupils were open, good-humored and actively involved in classroom activities.

Hypothesis 6. The AI scores will relate to the teachers' classroom behavior.

The 30 AI scales correlated against the 19 teacher measures produced a matrix of 570 correlations, of which 39 were significantly greater than zero at the .05 level. About 29 significant correlations would have been expected by chance. The most interesting set of results concerned the nature of positive contacts between teacher and child:

	Nonphysical affection	Joking	Smiles, Laughs
Adaptability		-47*	
Aggression		51*	
Deference		-67**	
Ego Achievement	48*	43*	
Emotionality	47*	53**	
Harmavoidance	56**		
Sensuousness	42*	64**	
Sexuality			42*
Supplication			44*

It would appear from these correlations that the more aggressive, outgoing, self-assertive teachers established more positive contact with their pupils. Expressions of affection came from the more feminine teachers, smiling behavior from the more dependent.

* .05 level

** .01 level

A second set of correlations involved the manner of influencing children:

	Nondisciplinary Attempts at Influence		
	Direct, to Class	Indirect To Child	To Class
Abasement	-44*		
Agression			48*
Change		61**	40*
Dominance			40*
Emotionality	49*		
Energy	44*		
Fantasied Achievement	46*	55**	45*
Reflectiveness			48*

These correlations suggest that the more aggressive, manipulative, achievement-oriented teacher attempted to influence the class indirectly, while the emotionally expressive teacher influenced the class using direct methods.

This can also be seen in the relationships between teacher personality and method of dealing with disciplinary problems:

	Disciplinary Problems		
	Direct, to child	Indirect To Child	To Class
Abasement	-55	-44	
Counteraction	-41		
Deference	-41		
Narcissism			49

These three suggestive relationships involve the teacher's directness in dealing with disciplinary problems. Teachers who singled out a child and directed him explicitly to sit down, or to stop talking, with no effort to qualify or smooth over this attempt to control the child's behavior were non-abusive and non-deferent, i.e., self-assured and ready to challenge others. They were also non-counteractive, suggesting that they did not suffer frustration easily and had little patience with circumstances that they found interfering with their own purposes.

* .05 level

** .01 level

Hypothesis 7. AI scores will relate to academic achievement. AI scores of the teachers were related to both spelling and vocabulary achievement, with IQ held constant, with the following results:

AI Scale	Vocabulary achievement	Spelling achievement
Achievement	.58**	.61**
Counteraction		.43*
Emotionality	.43*	.43*
Humanities, Social Science	.59**	.51*
Understanding		.44*
Fantasied Achievement		.41*

These 9 significant correlations which came from a matrix of 60 correlations (30 scales x 2 criteria) suggest a non-random relationship between teacher personality and children's achievement. Particularly impressive were the correlations between the teachers' needs for achievement, their emotionality and interest in humanities and actual achievement of the pupils.

Hypothesis 8. The AI scores will relate to sociometric results, absences and tardiness records. The 30 AI scores were correlated with these 5 dependent measures. From the matrix of 150 correlations, 10 significant correlations resulted, about what could have been expected by chance. The more interesting of these significant correlations were between seven AI scores and the number of times the teacher was mentioned as someone the pupil could discuss a problem with. In general, these scales reflected the teacher's assertiveness, ego strength and capacity for self-expression. The logic of this finding suggests the usefulness of replicating this relationship.

Summary. Four hypotheses regarding teacher and pupil behavior were made for both the TPS and AI. The TPS was found to relate only to the teachers' behavior, but not to the other three criteria.

The AI did not relate to sociometric findings beyond that which would have been expected by chance, although there was some evidence that the teacher who was named as confidant had greater ego strength, assertiveness and need for self-expression than those not named as confidant. AI scores did relate to pupil achievement, with those teachers high on need for achievement, emotionality and interest in humanities producing greater achievement in their pupils. AI scores were also related to teacher behavior, particularly methods of influencing and disciplining children. Self-assured, non-deferent, emotionally expressive teachers tended to make direct, overt influence attempts. Expressions of affection were characteristic of the more feminine of the teachers. Finally, AI scores were related to pupil behavior, particularly those aspects which reflected freedom and active involvement in classroom activities. Teachers high on objectivity, achievement orientation and emotionality generally fostered a climate in their rooms which reduced fears in their pupils and increased their participation in the classroom.

Those who left teaching had higher scores on the practical motive (Form G) (mean = 38.05) than those who remained (mean = 33.32).

Those who remained in teaching had higher scores on the status-striving motive (Form G) (mean = 47.59) than those who resigned (mean = 42.97).

At the 5% level of confidence:

Those who left teaching had higher scores on the pre-adult fixated motive (Form A) (mean = 39.98) than those who remained (mean = 35.89).

Those who remained in teaching had higher scores on the rebellious motive (Form G) (mean = 36.30) than those who left (mean = 32.59).

Correlations were also computed between the 20 TPS scales and the number of days each of the 61 teachers who had remained in teaching had been absent in the two year period. None of the correlations was significantly greater than zero, although the correlation with dependency (Form G) barely missed attaining statistical significance.

The comparison of the "remain" group with the "resigned" group produced results which follow nicely from the theoretical notions underlying the scales. The relevance

of the investigation to be described, 47% of the teachers hired in Syracuse in 1958 had left teaching by June, 1960.

Employment History and TPS Scores

Most investigations of teacher behavior are necessarily limited to the short-term effects of the teachers' attitudes. Longitudinal classroom studies are almost unknown, although some important problems can only be investigated in this way. One important longitudinal problem facing school systems throughout the country is the high rate of teacher turnover.* Many undergraduates major in education for reasons which are essentially peripheral either to teaching or children and they leave the field of education at the first opportunity. The cost of training these peripherally involved teachers and finding and training their replacements must be staggering.

Through the cooperation of the Syracuse Board of Education this project had available the time cards of all the teachers hired in the fall of 1958 and 1959. Time did not allow the collection of criterion data for the 1959 group, but the project was able to secure information on the 1958 group on two dimensions: number of days absent in this two year period and the number of teachers who resigned from the Syracuse School system. Since only 78 (50%) of the 1958 group completed the TPS the results are limited by the volunteer nature of this sample.

Of the ten motives for teaching considered in this study, two clearly have relevance for the assessment of durable interest in teaching. The practical motive was defined earlier (Chapter I) as "largely limited to the instrumental value the occupation has...in terms of hours, pay" etc. It was conjectured that those teachers high on the status-striving motive enter the field and remain in it because the act of teaching and of being identified as a teacher confers status.

To test the relationship between motives and the criterion of remain in teaching vs. resign from teaching, t-tests were computed between the "remain" (N=41) and the "resign" (N=37) groups on each of the 20 TPS scales. The following results were obtained:

At the 1% level of confidence:

Those who left teaching had higher scores on the practical motive (Form G) (mean = 38.05) than those who remained (mean = 33.32).

Those who remained in teaching had higher scores on the status-striving motive (Form G) (mean = 47.59) than those who resigned (mean = 42.97)

At the 5% level of confidence:

Those who left teaching had higher scores on the pre-adult fixated motive (Form A) (mean = 39.98) than those who remained (mean = 35.89).

Those who remained in teaching had higher scores on the rebellious motive (Form G) (mean = 36.30) than those who left (mean = 32.59).

Correlations were also computed between the 20 TPS scales and the number of days each of the 41 teachers who had remained in teaching had been absent in the two year period. None of the correlations was significantly greater than zero, although the correlation with dependency (Form G) barely missed attaining statistical significance.

The comparison of the "remain" group with the "resigned" group produced results which follow nicely from the theoretical notions underlying the scales. The relevance

*In the investigation to be described, 47% of the teachers hired in Syracuse in 1958 had left teaching by June, 1960.

Changes in Attitudes as a Result of Cadet Teaching Experience

of the status-striving motive and the practical motive to this criterion was stated earlier. It might be expected that those high in rebellion would remain in teaching since their rebellion is channeled through the field of education; teaching provides an outlet for thwarted idealistic goals and those high on this need must stay in teaching to satisfy these values.

Of the four significant t-tests, three were found on the Gratifications Scales indicating that this method of assessment, i.e., describing satisfactions, may be a more efficient way of predicting long-term behavior than asking for rationalized statements of attitudes.

The lack of significant correlations of absences with motives may be due to the restricted population which was used. The resigned group, whose interest in education was already exhausted, was excluded from this analysis since there was no method for determining how many days they would have been absent had they remained. The correlations were thus computed using teachers whose interest in education was high enough to keep them on the job.

The choice of teaching as a career is frequently based on glamorous or altruistic reasons. Love of children, the desire to impart knowledge to the young, a desire to contribute to society, all seem important to the sophomore. The first prolonged contact with teaching as it exists, rather than as it is imagined, does not come until the semester of cadet teaching experience. What happens to the motives as a result of this experience? Does the baptism under fire harden existing motives or does it radically alter motives from the altruistic to the practical?

To test the effect of the cadet teaching semester, Dr. Fred Katznelberg of the State Teachers College at Oswego, N.Y., administered both forms of the TOS to 76 females and 21 male undergraduates immediately before and immediately after their student teaching semester.

The statistically significant t-tests comparing pre and post-test scores are given below. All probabilities are two-tailed. When pre-test scores are compared

with post-test scores:	Form A	Form G
Males (N=21)	Non-directive decreased (.01 level) Rebellious decreased (.05 level) Orderliness increased (.01 level) Dominance increased (.05 level)	Orderliness increased (.05 level) Dominance increased (.01 level)
Females (N=76)	Nurturant decreased (.05 level) Non-directive decreased (.05 level) Rebellious decreased (.05 level) Pre-adult fixated decreased (.01 level) Practical increased (.01 level) Orderliness increased (.01 level) Dominance increased (.01 level)	Practical increased (.01 level) Orderliness increased (.01 level) Dominance increased (.01 level) Dependency increased (.05 level) Status-striving increased (.05 level)

Changes in Attitudes as a Result of Cadet Teaching Experience

Many major decisions in a person's life are made without benefit of prior experience. The man who marries because his wife makes him feel superior may know a year later on the basis of empirical evidence that she is exasperatingly stupid. In many ways, career choice is made as intuitively as marriage. (We say, in fact, that some people are married to their careers). The features which look attractive in the distance may prove to be illusory; characteristics, not previously noted, may later become far more salient.

It is clear from conversations with many undergraduate education majors that the choice of teaching as a career is frequently based on glamorous or altruistic reasons. Love of children, the desire to impart knowledge to the young, a chance to contribute to society, all seem important to the sophomore. The first prolonged contact with teaching as it exists, rather than as it is imagined, does not come until the semester of cadet teaching experience. What happens to the motives as a result of this experience? Does the baptism under fire harden existing motives or does it radically alter motives from the altruistic to the practical?

To test the effect of the cadet teaching semester, Dr. Fred Ratzeburg of the State Teachers College at Oswego, N.Y., administered both forms of the TPS to 78 female and 21 male undergraduates immediately before and immediately after their student teaching semester.

The statistically significant t-tests comparing pre and post-test scores are given below. All probabilities are two-tailed. When pre-test scores are compared

with post-test scores:	Form A	Form G
Males (N=21)	Non-directive decreased (.01 level) Rebellious decreased (.05 level) Orderliness increased (.01 level) Dominance increased (.05 level)	Orderliness increased(.05 level) Dominance increased (.01 level)
Females(N=78)	Nurturant decreased (.05 level) Non-directive decreased (.05 level) Rebellious decreased (.05 level) Pre-adult fixated decreased(.01 level) Practical increased (.01 level) Orderliness increased (.01 level) Dominance increased (.01 level)	Practical increased(.01 level) Orderliness increased(.01 level) Dominance increased (.01 level) Dependency increased (.05 level) Status-striving increased(.05 level)

For the 20 t-tests computed for the males, 3 are significant at the .01 level of confidence and 3 at the .05 level; for the 20 t-tests computed for the females, 7 are significant at the .01 level and 5 at the .05 level. The phenomenon is evidently stable, since this number of significant results are far in excess of what could be expected by chance. Further, the changes are all consistent--the teacher-centered motives increased and the pupil-centered motives decreased. For the female cadet teachers, 3 of the 4 teacher-centered motives showed a decrease on either Form A or Form G (only the exhibitionistic motive remained unchanged), and all 4 of the teacher-centered motives increased. The differences in the males' scores were in the same direction. Of the two motives-- status-striving and rebelliousness -- which can be found in either the teacher-oriented or the pupil-oriented patterns, no consistent trend was found. Rebelliousness decreased (Form A) for both males and females, but status-striving (Form G) increased for females.

The conclusions of this part of the study are unequivocal; as a result of the cadet teaching experience, teacher-centered motives increase and pupil-centered motives decrease.

Using a second sample of Oswego undergraduates, Ratzeburg compared the evaluation made of the cadet teacher's work by the supervising teacher with the student's TPS scores. The students were divided into three groups on the basis of this evaluation-- superior, average and poor-- and the mean of each group was compared to the other two means through use of the t-test. The statistically significant results are given below, all reported for two-tailed probability levels.¹

rebellion -- which can be found in either teacher-centered or pupil-centered constellations. In the earlier study the tetrachoric correlations between these motives and grades were close to zero. Either Oswego supervisors place a higher value on these two motives as they are reflected in classroom behavior than do

¹(See next page for results) Oswego undergraduates who rate themselves high on these dimensions actually do teach relatively more effectively than their Syracuse counterparts.

Form A

Males (N=34)

Females (N=72)

Male and females combined
(N=106)Form GPractical motive lower for
superior group than average
group (.01 level)Status-striving motive higher
for superior group than average
group (.01 level)Nurturant motive higher for
superior group than average
group. (.05 level)Rebellious motive higher for
superior group than average group
(.05 level)

Practical motives lower for
superior group than either
average or poor group
(both at .01 level)

Nurturant motive higher for
superior group than poor group
(.05 level)

Rebellious motive higher for
superior group than average group
(.05 level)

Dominance motive lower for
superior group than either average
or poor group (both .05 level)

These findings are congruent with a similar study reported earlier (Stern, et al) comparing TPS scores with cadet teaching grades received by Syracuse University undergraduates. In both studies the grades given by the supervisors were inversely related to the teacher-centered motives (practical and dominance) and directly related to pupil-centered motives (nurturant). What is surprising in the present study is the direct relationship found between grades and the two motives -- status-striving and rebellion -- which can be found in either teacher-centered or pupil-centered constellations. In the earlier study the tetrachoric correlations between these motives and grades were close to zero. Either Oswego supervisors place a higher value on these two motives as they are reflected in classroom behavior than do Syracuse supervisors or else Oswego undergraduates who rate themselves high on these dimensions actually do teach relatively more effectively than their Syracuse counterparts.

The successful cross-validation of the finding that pupil-centered motives relate directly and teacher-centered motives inversely with grades given lends support to the notion that teacher's attitudes for practice teaching are predictable, consistent and lawful. At the very least, the TPS would appear to be a useful instrument for the study of differences and similarities in ideologies of teaching.

Increasing emphasis is being given in the preparation of teachers to the need to become aware of the importance of early diagnosis and prompt referral to a treatment agency. Not only are teachers taught to look for children in trouble, but effort is also made to distinguish between superficial management problems (e.g., smoking, swearing) and more serious, long-term problems (e.g., withdrawal, suspiciousness).

In one of our cooperating school systems, we obtained permission to have all elementary school teachers (N=67) and junior and senior high school teachers list those children in their classes whom they would like to refer to the school psychologist together with the reason for the referral. They also listed the number of psychology courses they had completed and the number of years they had taught.

The teachers' free responses to the reasons for referral were then categorized into one of the following groups:

- Category 1: Acting-out behavior (aggressiveness, restlessness, attention-getting)
- Category 2: Withdrawn behavior (shyness, social isolation, inactivity)
- Category 3: Academic problems despite good aptitude test scores
- Category 4: Physical problems (poor speech or hearing, poor coordination)
- Category 5: Miscellaneous

Table 8-1 presents the specific number of referrals by grade and category. It is encouraging to see that surprisingly few referrals were made because the child had offended the teacher's sense of propriety (i.e., cheating or swearing) and

Chapter VIII

Teacher Motives and Referrals to the School Psychologist

There is growing interest in the mental health professions to establish preventive mental health programs in the schools. The staggering cost to individual families and the economy of the country caused by neurotic and psychotic disorders could hopefully be reduced if therapeutic intervention could be started at the beginning of the disorder rather than at the time when the symptoms become florid. Increasing emphasis is being given in the preparation of teachers to the need to become aware of the importance of early diagnosis and prompt referral to a treatment agency. Not only are teachers taught to look for children in trouble, but effort is also made to distinguish between superficial management problems (e.g., smoking, swearing) and more serious, long-term problems (e.g., withdrawal, suspiciousness).

In one of our cooperating school systems, we obtained permission to have all elementary school teachers (N=67) and junior and senior high school teachers (N=74) list those children in their classes whom they would like to refer to the school psychologist together with the reason for the referral. They also listed the number of psychology courses they had completed and the number of years they had taught.

The teachers' free responses to the reasons for referral were then categorized into one of the following groups:

Category 1: Acting-out behavior (aggressiveness, restlessness, attention-getting)

Category 2: Withdrawn behavior (shyness, social isolation, fearfulness)

Category 3: Academic problems despite good aptitude test scores

Category 4: Physical problems (poor speech or hearing, poor coordination)

Category 5: Miscellaneous

Table 8-1 presents the specific number of referrals by grade and category. It is encouraging to see that surprisingly few referrals were made because the child had offended the teacher's sense of propriety (i.e., cheating or swearing) and

frequent referrals of children who presented no management problem in the classroom but whose withdrawing behavior suggested future psychological problems. This pattern of referrals is probably due both to the upper-middle class background of the pupils and to the young, idealistic attitudes of the teachers themselves.

Table 8 - 1
Referrals by Grade and Symptom Category

Grade	Total Number Referred	CATEGORIES OF REFERRAL ¹				
		Acting-out	Withdrawn	Academic	Physical	Miscellaneous
Senior High	90	17	44	23	10	17
Junior High	133	26	46	58	12	20
Elementary	161	48	80	43	26	17
Kindergarten	11	6	5	2	0	1
First Grade	34	12	15	4	7	4
Second "	16	5	12	3	3	1
Third "	19	8	8	7	3	1
Fourth "	18	7	6	8	2	2
Fifth "	8	3	4	3	1	1
Sixth "	24	4	14	11	4	0
TOTAL	384	91	170	124	48	54

The data were cast into a 20 x 8 table of intercorrelations: the scores each teacher made on the 10 Form A scales and 10 Form G scales correlated with the five symptom categories, the proportion of children referred in relation to the size of each teacher's class, the number of psychology courses each teacher had taken and the number of years of teaching experience of each teacher.

Table 8 - 2 presents the table of intercorrelations for the elementary teachers and Table 8 - 3 presents the intercorrelations for the secondary teachers.

¹ A child could be referred for more than one reason.

Table 8 - 2

Correlations Between TPS Scores and Referrals To School Psychologist:
Primary School Group (N=67)

Form A		No. courses taken	Years Experience	Propor. of Referrals	REASONS FOR REFERRAL				
					Acting Out	With- drawing	Academic	Physical	Misc.
Practical	1	-.19	-.01	-.17	.14	.06	-.15	.04	.16
Status-striving	2	-.31**	.07	.14	-.01	.21	-.05	.00	-.03
Nurturant	3	-.12	-.02	.13	-.02	.29*	-.06	.06	.09
Non-directive	4	.01	-.06	.11	-.02	.28*	-.12	.12	.13
Rebellious	5	-.32**	-.16	.21	.16	.09	.25*	.11	.05
Pre-adult fixated	6	-.12	.17	.12	.16	.24*	-.18	-.08	.03
Orderliness	7	-.11	-.06	.08	.05	.06	-.08	.10	.00
Dependency	8	-.26*	.10	.01	.09	.07	-.28*	-.17	.00
Exhibitionistic	9	.09	-.22	.18	.15	.15	-.09	.02	.20
Dominance	10	.00	-.12	.31**	.21	.06	-.03	-.02	.22
Form G									
Practical	1	-.11	.00	.18	.25*	.17	-.19	.17	-.02
Status-striving	2	-.04	.00	-.03	-.20	-.11	.15	.00	.11
Nurturant	3	-.14	.09	-.07	-.21	-.02	-.04	.04	.03
Non-directive	4	.09	-.03	.00	-.12	.01	.14	.15	.09
Rebellious	5	.18	-.07	.06	-.11	-.09	.14	.08	.05
Pre-adult fixated	6	-.02	.07	.03	-.05	.20	.07	.03	.01
Orderliness	7	-.26*	.11	-.17	-.20	-.24*	-.17	-.11	-.09
Dependency	8	-.06	-.03	-.03	-.15	-.09	.04	-.07	.12
Exhibitionistic	9	-.13	-.19	.18	-.02	.23*	.08	-.01	.11
Dominance	10	-.09	-.28*	.02	.02	.06	-.10	-.11	.02

* Significant at the .05 level

** " " " .01 level

Table 8 - 3

**Correlations Between TPS Scores and Referrals To School Psychologist:
Secondary School Group (N=74)**

Form A		No. courses taken	Years Experience	Propor. of Referrals	REASONS FOR REFERRAL				
					Acting Out	With- drawn	Academic	Physical	Misc.
Practical	1	.00	.00	-.01	.01	.12	.03	-.02	-.04
Status-striving	2	-.10	-.08	-.21	.01	.05	-.13	.12	-.14
Nurturant	3	-.06	.31**	.07	.19	.24*	-.03	.10	.08
Non-directive	4	-.15	.12	-.09	.17	.04	-.19	-.13	.01
Rebellious	5	.06	-.10	-.09	.04	.16	-.05	.19	-.14
Pre-adult fixated	6	-.12	.23*	-.21	.12	.05	-.33**	-.16	.11
Orderliness	7	-.08	.20	-.33**	-.25*	-.20	-.35**	-.19	-.26*
Dependency	8	-.15	.32**	-.18	-.13	-.02	-.19	-.01	-.08
Exhibitionistic	9	-.09	.08	-.19	.00	.06	-.23*	-.04	-.14
Dominance	10	-.01	-.19	-.06	-.09	.00	-.02	.05	-.11
Form G									
Practical	1	-.15	.02	-.06	-.14	-.06	-.05	-.04	-.12
Status-striving	2	.02	-.19	.05	.21	.14	.03	.07	-.02
Nurturant	3	.01	.15	.10	.20	.11	.07	.14	.04
Non-directive	4	-.12	.02	.17	.26*	.23*	.15	.21	.10
Rebellious	5	.15	-.10	-.13	.16	-.08	-.10	.21	-.16
Pre-adult fixated	6	.01	-.04	.03	.13	.07	-.04	.02	.01
Orderliness	7	.00	.05	-.26*	-.13	-.14	-.20	.01	-.34**
Dependency	8	-.02	-.06	-.07	.22	.07	-.09	.09	-.07
Exhibitionistic	9	-.11	-.01	.09	.26*	.25*	.00	.12	-.07
Dominance	10	-.07	-.36**	-.14	-.09	-.10	-.14	-.09	-.27*

* Significant at the .05 level

** Significant at the .01 level

For each group of teachers, 160 correlations were computed, so that by chance alone 16 significant correlations at the .05 level for the two groups could be expected. Instead, these tables yielded two times that number, 32, significant at the .05 level or better, and instead of the three correlations expected by chance at the .01 level, these data produced 10 correlations significant at the .01 level. The elementary teachers' group produced 14 significant correlations and the secondary teachers' produced 18 significant correlations.

In this array only two significant findings appeared in both the elementary and secondary groups: (1) years of teaching experience was negatively related to G 10 (dominance), the more experienced teachers showing the least dominant gratification scores; and (2) the proportion of children referred for reasons of withdrawing behavior was directly related to A 3 (nurturance), the more nurturant the teacher's attitudes the more she referred children for reasons of withdrawing. The latter finding is of considerable interest insofar as it reflects on teacher sensitivity to that symptom which mental hygienists consider most serious. Evidently the nurturant teacher is attuned to the significance of withdrawing behavior.

The only other significant finding to appear twice was the relationship in the secondary teacher group between Scale 6, Orderliness, on both Form A and Form G, and the proportion of pupils referred. Here the relationship was inverse--the more orderly the teacher's attitude the fewer number of pupils referred. Implied in this relationship is a greater concern for routine and neatness in these teachers than with the psychological needs of the pupils.

Several aspects of these data support the conclusion that the elementary and secondary schools constitute different psychological situations: (1) as previously noted, only two significant correlations appeared in both elementary and secondary groups; (2) there were four significant correlations between TPS scores and the number of psychology courses taken in the elementary group but there was a total absence of such relationships in the secondary group; (3) years of teaching experience

yielded four significant correlations with the TPS for the secondary group and none for the elementary group; (4) and inspection of Table 8 - 1 Referrals by Grade and Symptom Category shows a different pattern of referrals for elementary and secondary teachers, the former referring pupils more frequently for reasons of acting-out behavior, withdrawing and physical problems, while the latter referred many more pupils for reasons of academic underachievement. The magnitude of the relationship between teacher personality and her performance in school will obviously be tempered by many factors, including the specific situation in which the relationship is examined. The grade level taught is obviously an important variable to be taken into account when this relationship is considered.

Adaptation indices and reliabilities ranged from .59 for the self-scale (practical) to .75 for the peer scale (social) active; the median test-retest correlation for Form A was .485 and the median correlation for Form B was .487.

Discrimination indices were computed for each of the 20 items, resulting in a range of indices from 22.2 to 50.1, with a median of 32.1. Form B items discriminated slightly better than Form A items and were more frequently chosen by the respondents; 10% more of the subjects in the normative group agreed with the gratification items than with the parallel attitudinal statements.

Analysis of the intercorrelations among the sub-scales showed no evidence for a common factor shared by all scales. The practical, domestic and orderly motives formed a cluster which was essentially orthogonal to the remaining seven scales. These three scales tended also to be the least predicted. The subset of scales, with dominance at the center, reflects a progressive, evaluative attitude toward teaching, while another subset of scales, with the pre-adult limited active at the center, reflects a pre-adolescent attitude.

After the main research activities had been completed, two developmental

Chapter IX

Summary

This report describes three general aspects of research designed to produce understanding of the influence of a teacher's motives for her performance and effectiveness in the classroom. The first aspect deals with the psychometric description of the instruments designed to assess teacher motives--two scales of 100 items each, one scale assessing the teacher's attitudes or philosophy of teaching (Form A) and the other scale assessing the gratifications she receives from teaching (Form G). Judged by formal statistical criteria, the 10 sub-scales of each test can be considered quite adequate. Test-retest reliability over a four to six week period on a sample of 629 undergraduate education majors and teachers ranged from .59 for one sub-scale (practical) to .75 for the pre-adult fixated motive; the median test-retest correlation for Form A was .685 and the median correlation for Form G was .645.

Discrimination indices were computed for each of the 200 items, resulting in a range of indices from 20.4 to 80.1, with a median of 58.1. Form G items discriminated slightly better than Form A items and were more frequently chosen by the respondents; 10% more of the subjects in the normative group agreed with the gratifications items than with the parallel attitudinal statements.

Analysis of the intercorrelations among the sub-scales showed no evidence for a common factor shared by all scales. The practical, dominant and orderly motives formed a cluster which was essentially orthogonal to the remaining seven scales. These three scales tended also to be the least preferred. One subset of scales, with dominance at the center, reflects a pragmatic, manipulative attitude toward teaching, while another subset of scales, with the pre-adult fixated motive at the center, reflects a pupil-centered attitude.

After the main research activities had been completed, new developments

in factor analysis and computer technology made it possible to factor the matrix of intercorrelations between the 20 subscales. Five factors were extracted from this matrix: I. Task-oriented pragmatism; II. Affection-seeking; III. Dependency Needs; IV. Vicarious Youth Leader; and V. Union Representative.

It should be noted that while the test items are statistically acceptable, some basic psychological questions regarding the test have not been dealt with. For example, the effect of social desirability on test performance has not been investigated. In constructing the test an attempt was made to reduce the social desirability motive by phrasing each item to appear acceptable; whether this goal was realized can only be answered by studying this question directly. A similar question can be asked regarding the ease with which a test subject can alter his responses on the items in order to disguise his "true" motives. Again, this question has not been investigated. We assume that the subjects who took the test in this study, all guaranteed anonymity, answered without great fear of reprisal or consequences. Whether an applicant for employment in a school system would be able to simulate a desirable pattern of responses in order to be hired is another matter which warrants direct investigation.

A second aspect of this study dealt with the ability of the TPS to discriminate and clarify differences between various groups of teachers. Several teacher groups were compared: cadet teachers before and after their first student teaching experience; male teachers vs. female teachers; teachers who remain in teaching vs. those who leave; elementary vs. secondary teachers; cadet teachers who receive high grades for student teaching vs. those who receive lower grades; teachers who refer children to the school psychologist vs. those who do not.

In general, the TPS proved to be an adequate instrument for this purpose. Differences were consistently found among these various groups and the direction of these differences were consistent with expectation. The central issue in each case usually fell along the teacher-centered-pupil-centered dimension. Thus, experienced teachers were typically less pupil-centered than the inexperienced; this even held true for the comparison of teachers before and after their first student teacher experience. Elementary teachers were significantly more pupil-centered than secondary teachers, although there were no differences on the teacher-centered scales. Male undergraduates were less pupil-centered than female undergraduates, but with teaching experience the pattern of differences between male and female grew more complex, with the females scoring higher on some pupil-centered scales as well as on some teacher-centered scales. Comparison of teachers who left the Syracuse, New York school system after two years showed they scored higher on the practical, status-striving and pre-adult fixated motives and lower on the rebellious motive than those who remained. The relationship between TPS scores and referrals to the school psychologist was complex, but there was evidence that the pupil-centered teacher was more sensitive to the importance of withdrawing behavior of the pupil than their teacher-centered colleagues.

The third, and most important, aspect of this study concerned the inter-relationships among three factors: teacher personality, teacher behavior in the classroom and pupil response. Teacher personality was assessed through the TPS and the Stern Activities Index. Teacher behavior was observed directly in the classroom. Pupil response was also observed directly in the classroom and several indirect measures of pupil response were also available, including

achievement scores, sociometric results and tardiness and absence records.

In this most important phase of the work the results were frankly disappointing. TPS did not relate in any consistent manner with pupil behavior, academic achievement or sociometric results. However, there were consistent findings between TPS scores and teacher behavior, particularly with methods of direct and indirect discipline. Pupil-centered teachers tended much less than other teachers to use either direct or indirect discipline.

The AI proved to be a much better instrument for predicting pupil behavior and achievement than the TPS. Those teachers who scored high on the need for achievement, emotionality and interest in humanities had pupils with the highest achievement scores in vocabulary and spelling. Pupils showed less fear and increased participation in class activities when their teachers had high scores on objectivity, emotionality and need for achievement.

There are several possible reasons for the failure to predict classroom behavior better. All correlations between test scores and observed behavior were based on a sample of 23 female teachers. This small sample required sizeable correlations before statistically significant levels could be reached. If the size of the sample could have been doubled many more significant correlations would have been obtained, providing, of course, that the increase in sample size would not have reduced the magnitude of the correlations. Perhaps a more important factor in limiting the opportunity of finding significant results was the wide variation found among the six different school systems in which the sample of 23 teachers worked. Significant differences among these schools were found on three of the five criteria of student behavior. With such a substantial contribution to the classroom climate contributed by the school system itself there was little opportunity for the influence of teacher motives to be expressed. In addition, the poor prediction may have been due to the nature of the test items; the items may be too obvious or may simply be

inappropriate for assessment of classroom behavior. Finally, the criteria of classroom behavior may not have been well chosen. Although each classroom was observed for about five and a half hours the teacher may have been sufficiently on guard to have presented a non-random sample of her behavior to the observer. Other criteria of classroom behavior or longer or more subtle observation may have yielded more encouraging results. It is worthwhile to note the methodological finding that repeated samples over time of teacher and pupil behavior found no consistent changes as a function of observer time spent in the class; either the class and teacher never become adapted to the observer's presence or else classroom behavior is by nature episodic.

This study documents the usefulness of the TPS in understanding certain problems of teacher education and teacher development. It also documents the importance of classroom climate in influencing classroom behavior. Unfortunately, the specific conditions on this study made it necessary to use widely different school systems, so that the importance of the teacher's motives were overshadowed by the influence of the larger context of the classroom.

Gratifications Scale	
Item No.	Relevant Gratifications (Instruments)
11.	Getting home early enough to spend a few minutes with my family and/or other interests.
15.	Discouraging children from telling me personal things about themselves.
37.	Finishing all my work during the school day so that I can do what I want when I want.
39.	Discouraging pupils from getting to know me outside of school.
54.	Forgetting all about teaching during the day.
56.	Leaving school right after the end of class.
58.	Putting school problems out of my mind as soon as I get home.
77.	Working for a principal who doesn't have too much to say about my personal time.
79.	Leaving extra-curricular assignments to be completed at home.
95.	Impressing that I really don't contact me during the day.

Gratifications Scale I -- Practical Motives

Item No.	Relevant Gratifications (Instrumental rewards)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
11.	Getting home early enough to spend a few hours every afternoon with my family and/or other interests.	44.9	92
15.	Discouraging children from telling me personal things about themselves.	33.7	17
37.	Finishing all my work during the school day, so that when I go home my time will be my own.	64.8	67
39.	Discouraging pupils from getting to expect extra help after school.	45.9	20
54.	Forgetting all about teaching during the summer vacation.	64.3	34
66.	Leaving school right after the end of classes.	64.3	32
70.	Putting school problems out of my mind as soon as I get home.	68.4	41
77.	Working for a principal who doesn't make excessive demands on my personal time.	51.0	89
79.	Leaving extra-curricular assignments to teachers who are more interested in them.	52.0	38
95.	Insisting that parents contact me during the school day rather than on my own time.	55.1	26

Total N	727
Scale Mean	33.28
Scale Sigma	7.76

Gratifications Scale 2 -- Status-Striving Motives

Item No.	Relevant Gratifications (Prestige)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
3.	Subscribing to educational journals.	58.2	88
13.	Conducting myself in the community in ways that reflect my status as a teacher.	50.5	95
23.	Being introduced to others as a teacher.	62.2	80
28.	Attending concerts, art exhibits, plays, etc., with other teachers.	61.2	78
38.	Attending educational conferences.	59.2	78
56.	Seeing the girls in my family, or of close friends, develop an interest in teaching as a career.	56.1	85
59.	Telling others what my occupation is.	67.8	90
69.	Being identified as a member of the same social and cultural class as other teachers.	63.8	78
83.	Continuing my education as a teacher by taking courses, attending lectures, etc.	58.7	95
92.	Being selected to represent the teaching profession on a civic committee.	62.2	72

Total N 727
 Scale Mean 47.20
 Scale Sigma 7.24

Gratifications Scale 3 -- Nurturant Motives

Item No.	Relevant Gratifications (Children's affection)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
6.	Being concerned about my pupils' welfare outside the school.	67.3	94
16.	Seeing how much I can do for children who have been deprived of affection and emotional support.	71.9	94
20.	Having brothers and sisters, or children, of former pupils in my class.	56.1	74
33.	Hearing a child unconsciously call me "mother" or "father".	68.9	52
42.	Having pupils regard me not only as their teacher but also as someone who understands and really cares about them.	55.6	98
52.	Following the careers of former pupils.	56.6	86
64.	Having a pupil confide in me as in a parent.	76.0	77
74.	Helping children with their personal problems.	73.5	91
87.	Reminding my pupils to dress warmly, button their coats, wear rubbers, etc.	64.3	72
100.	Having former pupils remember me, stop to talk on the street, or come to visit.	56.6	96

Total N 727
 Scale Mean 47.89
 Scale Sigma 6.94

Gratification Scale 4 -- Nondirective Motives

Item No.	Relevant Gratifications (Children's autonomy)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
7.	Letting my pupils whisper or talk quietly among themselves.	51.5	60
17.	Having as few rules and regulations for the students as possible.	43.9	68
43.	Letting the students make their own decisions about classroom activities and procedures.	66.8	77
53.	Encouraging my pupils to direct their own activities, providing help only when needed.	62.8	83
62.	Inviting pupils to question my decisions and express their own opinions.	52.0	89
71.	Letting students choose their own projects, topics for themes, etc.	60.7	88
75.	Helping children to discover and assert their own individuality.	50.5	97
78.	Spending a considerable amount of class time in group discussions.	56.6	80
89.	Encouraging pupils to express themselves freely in my classroom.	60.2	93
97.	Organizing my class so that each pupil is following his own interests and doing independent work most of the time.	61.7	51

Total N 727
Scale Mean 45.19
Scale Sigma 6.63

Gratifications Scale 5 -- Rebellious Motives

Item No.	Relevant Gratifications (Promoting teacher's rights)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
5.	Working actively to promote greater public recognition and appreciation of the professional problems of teachers.	61.2	84
18.	Fighting for better pay, sickness and accident protection, retirement provisions, etc., for teachers.	64.8	77
26.	Being an active member of a teachers' federation or union.	65.8	55
30.	Writing letters to newspaper editors or congressmen about educational problems.	71.4	50
41.	Bringing the problems of the school system to the attention of the public.	70.9	70
45.	Encouraging other teachers to take an active role in a teacher federation or union.	73.5	46
57.	Speaking up for more objective and politically independent appointments of principals and educational supervisors.	65.8	68
72.	Questioning activities of the local school board or legislative agencies.	62.2	60
84.	Being outspoken in defense of teachers' rights.	59.7	69
98.	Encouraging other teachers to express their opinions publicly, about issues or events of significance to our profession.	66.3	68

Total N 727
Scale Mean 39.65
Scale Sigma 9.29

Gratifications Scale 6 -- Preadult Fixated Motives

Item No.	Relevant Gratifications (Vicarious participation)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance item
1.	Playing games with my pupils.	63.3	86
19.	Browsing in toy shops.	55.6	69
29.	Making up stories for children.	68.4	67
44.	Keeping up with the songs, books, T.V. programs, etc., that my pupils are interested in.	58.2	90
58.	Being invited by the pupils to join in their games or parties.	77.6	81
73.	Joining in the fun my pupils are having.	80.1	84
81.	Helping children with their hobbies.	61.7	89
85.	Getting to know my pupils well enough to be able to really share their thoughts and feelings with them.	65.8	91
96.	Being a pal to my pupils.	68.4	51
99.	Forgetting my dignity and getting right down to the children's own level.	60.2	42

Total N 727
 Scale Mean 43.78
 Scale Sigma 8.81

Gratification Scale 7 -- Orderliness Motives

Item No.	Relevant Gratifications (Obsessive compulsions)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance item
8.	Having the pupils do over papers that are not neat.	47.4	75
10.	Keeping careful and accurate records of pupils' progress, assignments, attendance, etc.	37.2	91
24.	Following a daily classroom routine faithfully.	65.8	40
32.	Giving the pupils the opportunity for a lot of drill and formal recitation.	65.8	49
34.	Keeping my classroom clean and neat as my own home.	40.3	93
47.	Scheduling activities of the school day minute by minute.	56.6	92
49.	Having the entire class do the same thing at the same time.	49.0	38
61.	Making sure my pupils cover every bit of the curriculum.	60.2	70
65.	Discouraging class discussions and other distractions from the planned lesson.	43.9	13
88.	Following specific and carefully organized lesson plans.	74.0	51

Total N 727
 Scale Mean 35.52
 Scale Sigma 6.62

Gratifications Scale 8 -- Dependency Motives

Item No.	Relevant Gratifications (Support from superiors)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
9.	Having a principal who takes a close interest in the things I do.	42.9	90
21.	Having a supervisor or principal who shows as much concern for my personal development as for my professional growth.	59.7	76
25.	Having other teachers take an interest in my work and offer me advice or suggestions.	52.6	87
31.	Having the principal or supervisor visit my classes regularly.	58.2	48
35.	Putting loyalty and obedience to my principal or supervisor above personal differences of opinion.	54.1	57
46.	Being closely supervised by my supervisors.	68.4	19
50.	Being provided by the school administration with detailed lesson plans to be followed throughout the term.	44.4	13
63.	Relying closely on a supervisor for help and guidance.	59.2	29
86.	Doing my best to please my supervisor or principal.	48.5	86
90.	Being supervised by a person who expects me to discuss all my problems with him.	55.1	28

Total N 727
 Scale Mean 35.26
 Scale Sigma 6.75

Gratifications Scale 9 -- Exhibitionistic Motives

Item No.	Relevant Gratifications (Children's admiration)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
2.	Having my pupils put on plays and exhibitions for other classes or for parents.	45.9	84
4.	Enlivening my lessons with stories, jokes, or personal anecdotes.	59.7	93
12.	Having my pupils dramatize stories and lessons.	58.2	85
22.	Having my pupils copy my favorite expressions or mannerisms.	45.9	33
27.	Capturing the attention of my pupils to the point where they're hanging on my every word.	51.5	72
48.	Having pupils compliment me on my clothing or appearance.	60.2	77
60.	Being appreciated by the children for my sense of humor.	58.2	91
67.	Introducing a great deal of variety in my lessons so that the pupils are continually looking forward to the next surprise.	59.2	87
82.	Being known as a colorful and stimulating teacher.	60.7	94
93.	Having a reputation for experimenting with novel and unusual teaching techniques.	59.7	72

Total N 727
 Scale Mean 45.30
 Scale Sigma 6.78

Gratifications Scale 10 -- Dominance Motives

Item No.	Relevant Gratifications (Children's obedience)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
14.	Permitting no infractions of discipline, however minor, to go unnoticed.	50.0	41
36.	Keeping my classroom so quiet that you can hear a pin drop.	62.2	20
40.	Praising a child only when he's really done something deserving.	40.3	34
51.	Permitting children to talk only when called upon.	60.7	35
55.	Having a reputation among the pupils for being a strict teacher.	63.8	39
68.	Running my class with a firm hand.	65.3	68
76.	Holding the whole class responsible for any breaches of discipline.	30.1	16
80.	Having my pupils know who is boss.	63.8	71
91.	Making it clear to the youngsters that I won't tolerate any foolishness.	71.4	67
94.	Having the pupils maintain proper respect at all times for my position as their teacher.	44.9	90

Total N 727
 Scale Mean 33.29
 Scale Sigma 7.58

Attitudes Scale I -- Practical Motives

Item No.	Relevant Attitudes (Detachment)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
12.	Pupils' personal and emotional problems lie strictly in the province of the parents.	47.4	15
15.	Teachers should not be expected to devote time to such activities as milk sales, PTA, students' clubs, and other non-teaching activities.	55.1	27
37.	It wastes a lot of the teacher's valuable time when he has to deal with problem children himself, instead of being able to refer them immediately to the principal, guidance officer, or school psychologist.	56.1	39
40.	Pupils expect too much help from the teacher and don't do enough on their own.	43.4	60
52.	Pupils learn best with a teacher who is objective and impersonal, and who confines himself to instruction.	45.4	18
66.	Teachers should not be required to lead clubs, serve on committees, or do other work outside of school hours.	64.8	35
69.	Teachers who devote practically all of their time to school activities are actually less effective as teachers than those who pursue other interests.	22.4	75
77.	One of the biggest attractions in teaching is the short working day, the frequent vacations during the school year, and the long summer recess.	43.4	43
79.	Helping children after school encourages them to be lazy and inattentive during class.	45.4	9
92.	It isn't necessary to feel a strong sense of personal commitment or dedication in order to be a good teacher.	45.4	41

Total N 727
Scale Mean 28.98
Scale Sigma 6.56

Attitudes Scale 2 -- Status-Striving Motives

Item No.	Relevant Attitudes (Professional dignity)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
3.	Teachers are professional people and should conduct their personal lives accordingly.	44.9	89
13.	The teacher must hold himself responsible for raising the cultural standards of his community.	48.0	64
22.	A teacher is a highly respected member of the community.	62.8	83
30.	Union activities are beneath the dignity of teachers.	46.4	37
38.	A teacher should never stop taking courses.	57.1	73
57.	The cultural, educational, and social prestige teachers enjoy does much to compensate for their low income.	62.8	37
60.	Teachers are among the cultural and educational elite of their community.	62.8	69
68.	The teacher should always behave in a formal, mature, and dignified fashion.	33.7	48
81.	Teaching is one of the most respectable occupations a person can have.	57.6	89
95.	It is a teacher's professional responsibility to spend some time in outside activities associated with teaching: P.T.A. extra-curricular activities, graduate work, teachers' groups, etc.	49.0	89

Total N 727
 Scale Mean 41.48
 Scale Sigma 6.99

Attitudes Scale 3 -- Nurturant Motives

Item No.	Relevant Attitudes (Providing love)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
8.	Children must be able to feel the same comfort and security in the classroom as they would at home.	67.3	86
16.	The teacher should strive for a close, warm, and protective relationship with his pupils.	72.4	76
19.	Children learn best in an atmosphere filled with love and emotional support.	65.3	90
34.	A good teacher likes all his students.	62.8	66
44.	A pupil's first need is for warmth and tenderness.	80.1	68
55.	The good teacher is as much concerned with the physical and emotional development of his students as he is with their education.	56.1	95
62.	The true teacher never forgets his pupils, never ceases to care about what becomes of them.	59.7	87
74.	There's a lot to be said for the system in which the teacher keeps the same pupils for a number of grades.	30.6	50
89.	Children can never be given too much love.	55.6	51
98.	Children who misbehave or do not learn are generally children who need more love.	59.7	65

Total N 727
 Scale Mean 44.15
 Scale Sigma 7.68

Attitudes Scale 4 -- Nondirective Motives

Item No.	Relevant Attitudes (Encouraging self-actualization)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance item
9.	Strong disciplinary measures create more behavior problems than they solve.	56.1	62
20.	The teacher who acknowledges his own mistakes wins greater respect from the students than one who is never wrong	26.0	96
43.	A good teacher always earns the respect of his pupils and never demands it.	49.0	91
54.	Competitive grades based on absolute standards of achievement do more to discourage students than to motivate them.	49.5	43
64.	Class work must be based on the child's own interests if the learning experience is to be effective.	62.8	62
71.	Children who are told what to do soon lose the capacity to think for themselves.	59.7	70
73.	A child is never too young to begin exercising his own judgment and making decisions for himself.	49.5	68
78.	The best teacher is usually the one who allows the most freedom in the classroom.	38.8	18
87.	Pupils learn very little from a teacher who does most of the talking in the classroom.	46.9	70
99.	Children should never be embarrassed or made to feel inferior by a teacher.	57.6	71

Total N 727
Scale Mean 41.78
Scale Sigma 6.43

Attitudes Scale 5 -- Rebellious Motives

Item No.	Relevant Attitudes (Reforming schools)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
4.	One of the most important requirements in a good school system is the separation of school board elections from party politics.	20.4	93
17.	Many of the people who control the destiny of the public schools send their own children to private schools	48.5	43
26.	Most teachers are too submissive in their relations with their superiors.	56.1	56
28.	The people who get ahead in education are the people who don't step on anybody's toes.	31.1	35
41.	Too many supervisory appointments in the school system are made on the basis of politics rather than competence.	71.4	46
45.	School boards are generally concerned only with saving money when their first purpose should be to promote education.	64.3	41
58.	Many of the most important decisions affecting the schools are made by people who know nothing about education.	65.3	53
72.	The trouble with most supervisors and principals is that they watch teachers too closely and hang over them all the time.	56.6	25
83.	The reason why teachers are so badly off is that most of them don't have the courage to do anything about it.	56.6	36
96.	A great many of the people in school administration know very little about children or the everyday problems of teaching.	62.8	43

Total N 727
Scale Mean 34.38
Scale Sigma 7.64

Attitude Scale 6 -- Preadult Fixated Motives

Item No.	Relevant Attitudes (Identification with children)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
2.	Communication between the teacher and his pupils is facilitated if he can get them to accept him as a "pal", sort of as one of them.	57.1	47
18.	Children are more considerate than many adults.	35.2	68
29.	To really understand the pupils, it's necessary to be able to imagine what it's like to be one of them.	35.7	86
42.	Grown-ups are never as sincere or spontaneous or charming as children.	53.1	35
56.	Teaching goes a lot more smoothly if the teacher can get the children to accept him almost as though he were one of them.	73.5	57
75.	The good teacher knows that to be effective, he must sometimes think and act like a child.	61.2	43
82.	Nothing in adult life can compare to the joy and magic of the child's world.	75.5	48
85.	Being <u>with</u> the children rather than <u>over</u> them, talking their language, and being informal, are the hallmarks of a good teacher.	71.4	73
97.	In dealing with children it's frequently necessary to remember what it's like to be one.	37.2	94
100.	Childhood is really the best time of life.	66.3	45

Total N 727
Scale Mean 38.37
Scale Sigma 8.45

Attitude Scale 7 -- Orderliness Motives

Item No.	Relevant Attitudes (Developing good pupil habits)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
7.	Every assignment must specify exactly what the pupils are to do and how they are to do it.	53.6	57
10.	All pupils should be required to follow the same procedures.	46.9	27
23.	There is less danger of pupils getting into trouble if they are kept busy at all times.	38.8	89
32.	The teacher should never accept late or untidy work.	50.5	22
35.	To learn something properly, pupils have to repeat and drill it many times.	57.6	49
46.	Habits of punctuality, neatness, and organization are prerequisites for all further learning.	54.6	87
49.	It is highly desirable to grade children on personal habits and neatness.	49.5	60
61.	The fairest way to evaluate pupils is to keep a careful record of all their oral and written work.	60.7	74
65.	A good teacher can be recognized by the appearance of his grade book and attendance records.	51.5	30
86.	It is impossible to manage either a school or classroom without having a carefully detailed system of rules and regulations.	58.7	64

Total N 727
 Scale Mean 36.55
 Scale Sigma 7.07

Attitude Scale 8 -- Dependency Motives

Item No.	Relevant Attitudes (Cooperation with authority)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance item
6.	Teachers should avoid taking sides on controversial issues.	48.0	58
21.	Principals and supervisors have been selected for their competence and leadership ability and are entitled to respect.	56.1	91
24.	A teacher can seldom go wrong in following his principal's or supervisor's advice.	68.9	53
31.	It is inappropriate for teachers to criticize the policies of the school administrators.	57.6	35
33.	Pupils can hardly be expected to learn proper attitudes if a teacher does not show the principal proper respect.	58.7	89
47.	A teacher is duty-bound to stand by the principal under all circumstances.	62.8	44
50.	The curriculum represents the best efforts of many competent educators and should therefore be followed as closely as possible.	58.7	73
63.	The teacher should be careful never to do anything that might invite criticism.	69.9	51
88.	Every school should have some sort of a senior teacher whose only duty would be to help the individual teachers with classroom problems.	24.0	51
90.	The decisions made by the administration are always in the teachers' best interest.	52.6	29

Total N 727
 Scale Mean 37.66
 Scale Sigma 7.47

Attitudes Scale 9 -- Exhibitionistic Motives

Item No.	Relevant Attitudes (Showmanship)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
1.	One of the most important assets a teacher can have is the ability to make her class laugh.	47.4	73
5.	A lesson is most sure of success if it is presented in a vivid and dramatic fashion.	46.9	76
11.	A teacher has to be a super-salesman to get the students to learn anything.	42.8	25
25.	One of the most important qualities for a teacher to have is a lot of "personality".	60.7	82
27.	A good teacher never presents the same material in the same way twice.	53.1	46
48.	A little clowning is a good way to hold the students' attention and make the learning process more pleasant.	52.6	68
59.	Pupils pay more attention to a teacher who is a little dramatic, a little out of the ordinary.	53.6	67
70.	A colorful and amusing teacher is certain to be a good one.	56.6	35
84.	A good teacher can take the dulllest material and make it entertaining.	49.5	80
93.	A good teacher has to be part magician, part showman, and part salesman.	59.2	75

Total N 727
Scale Mean 38.61
Scale Sigma 7.07

Attitude Scale 10 -- Dominance Motives

Item No.	Relevant Attitudes (Maintaining discipline)	% Discrimination between top 27% and bottom 27%	% Acceptance Item
14.	Children have to be kept in their place or they're apt to take too many liberties.	56.6	51
36.	There are some situations arising in school for which corporal punishment is the only real answer.	55.1	56
39.	It is sometimes necessary to scold or embarrass students in order to keep them in line.	44.9	64
51.	If children were not pampered so much they would not be so sensitive to criticism and so easily hurt.	58.2	51
53.	No learning can take place when children are whispering or laughing.	56.1	58
67.	The most important things for a child to learn in school are obedience and respect for authority.	53.6	42
76.	Although they may frequently protest, children really want to be told what to do.	38.3	72
80.	There are fewer disciplinary problems when pupils are somewhat fearful of the teacher.	60.7	39
91.	Today's pupils do not have proper respect for their teachers.	59.7	53
94.	When children like a teacher, it's usually an indication that he lets them get away with too much.	29.6	5

Total N 727
Scale Mean 33.61
Scale Sigma 7.45

School and school system _____ Observer _____

- Tal Obs

SAMPLE CLASSROOM OBSERVATION RATING SHEET **PUPIL SCALE**

Teacher _____
Grade _____
School _____

Time _____
Obs. # _____
Subject _____

I. Count the number of times the following are observed during the 5 min. observation period.

A. Number of times pupils whisper to each other-

B. Number of times pupils leave seats:

1. Without permission-
2. With permission, pupil requests-
3. With permission, teacher requests-
4. Teacher commands-

C. Number of aggressive contacts:

Inferred Direct

1. Pupil- Pupil-
2. Pupil- Teacher-
3. Teacher- Pupil-

II. Classroom Climate.

Rate these categories at the end of the 5 min. observation period.

A. Freedom

1. Consistent noise level regardless of class activity.

Some increases in noise when activity changes.

Bursts into noise when class is not occupied.

1 2 3 4 5

2. Pupils whisper to each other openly; don't care if T. sees them.

Pupils whisper freely unless T. looks at them directly.

Pupils who whisper do so in covert, secretive manner.

1 2 3 4 5

B. Willingness

1. All pupils follow general directions promptly.

All but a few follow directions.

Many P. follow directions hesitantly; procrastinating.

1 2 3 4 5

2. Frequent, overt acts of helpfulness by many P's.

Some pupils show attitude of helpfulness.

Complete absence of helpful acts by pupils.

1 2 3 4 5

C. Tension

1. Pupils obviously enjoy themselves.

Some pupils show enjoyment; or, neither enjoyment nor fear is noticeable.

Many pupils seem openly fearful.

1 2 3 4 5

C. 2.	Frequent laughter from many pupils.	Occasional laughter from a few pupils.	No laughter from pupils is noticeable.		
	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Pupils show spontaneous initiative; participate freely. High degree of involvement.	Pupils show initiative in response to T. suggestions. Medium involvement.	Pupils show apathy or restraint in response to activity, or T. suggestions. Low degree of involvement.		

III. Bulk of activity during the 5 minute observation period. (Check one at the end of the observation period.)

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- A. Teacher asking pupils questions: General, to class as a whole-
Specific, to individual pupils-
- B. Pupils working by themselves: Completely individual activity-
Teacher gives individual help-
- C. Teacher lecturing to class.
- D. Pupils working in groups: Teacher remains with one group, others independent-
Teacher circulates among the groups-
- E. Pupils demonstrate work: Blackboard work-
Read papers to class-
- F. Rest period.
- G. Change of activity. (change subject)
- H. Play or physical education period.
- I. Other (Specify)

Teacher Preference Schedule

TEACHER PREFERENCE SCHEDULE

PART A

Use only a soft, black ball pencil. Fill the circle heavily. Erase any errors or stray marks completely.

Form with 100 numbered items (1-100) for teacher preference. Each item has a 'DISAGREE' column and an 'AGREE' column with a scale of -3, -2, -1, +1, +2, +3.

NAME (see directions below) and a grid for printing the teacher's name and first name in the boxes provided.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR USING NAME BOXES. Print your name in the boxes above the column of letters. Print your last name first. Skip a box, then print as much of your first name as possible. Below each box mark the circle that is followed by the name as the letter in the box. Mark the circle for space.

FOR N.C.S. USE ONLY. A grid for marking preferences for each letter and number.

TEACHER PREFERENCE SCHEDULE

[illegible]

DO NOT
WRITE
IN THIS
SPACE

TEACHER PREFERENCE SCHEDULE

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The purpose of this schedule is to investigate teachers' feelings about various aspects of teaching. The schedule consists of a number of statements describing many different things teachers are concerned about. Teachers differ in their feelings about these activities and this schedule has been developed as an aid to determining how great and how varied these differences are. It is important that you record your own personal feelings about these matters, even in those cases where you think that other teachers may perhaps feel differently than you do. There are no right answers; these are all matters of opinion, and there are strong arguments for every position represented here.

DIRECTIONS

The special answer sheet will be used to record your answers. Please read the Directions for Using Name Grid in the lower left hand corner of the answer sheet and then fill in the grid using an ordinary soft pencil. Then fill in the rest of the information requested in the center of the answer sheet. The response circles are numbered to correspond to the numbered items on the schedule. Be sure to blacken the appropriate circle matching the item number. To insure proper processing the response circle must be filled in completely, using a soft pencil only. Do not make stray marks, and erase errors completely. Please turn the page and read the directions for Part A.

Part A – Directions

This part of the schedule consists of a number of statements stating many different opinions and points of view about the methods and aims of teaching, desirable and undesirable types of pupil behavior, etc. It is important that you record your own personal opinions even in those cases where you think that most teachers probably feel differently than yourself. Be sure that you are using the side of your answer sheet that is marked Part A. Use a soft pencil to blacken your answer to each item in the following way:

DISAGREE			AGREE			
-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3	
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☒	+3 Strong Agreement
☐	☐	☐	☐	☒	☐	+2 Moderate Agreement
☐	☐	☐	☒	☐	☐	+1 Slight Agreement
☐	☐	☒	☐	☐	☐	-1 Slight Disagreement
☐	☒	☐	☐	☐	☐	-2 Moderate Disagreement
☒	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	-3 Strong Disagreement

Please check your item numbers carefully as you proceed to be sure your responses are marked in the correct place. After you finish Part A, please read the directions for Part B and then go on and answer Part B.

Part A

1. One of the most important assets a teacher can have is the ability to make her class laugh.
2. Communication between the teacher and his pupils is facilitated if he can get them to accept him as a "pal", sort of as one of them.
3. Teachers are professional people and should conduct their personal lives accordingly.
4. One of the most important requirements in a good school system is the separation of school board elections from party politics.
5. A lesson is most sure of success if it is presented in a vivid and dramatic fashion.
6. Teachers should avoid taking sides on controversial issues.
7. Every assignment must specify exactly what the pupils are to do and how they are to do it.
8. Children must be able to feel the same comfort and security in the classroom as they would at home.
9. Strong disciplinary measures create more behavior problems than they solve.
10. All pupils should be required to follow the same procedures.
11. A teacher has to be a super-salesman to get the students to learn anything.
12. Pupils' personal and emotional problems lie strictly in the province of the parents.
13. The teacher must hold himself responsible for raising the cultural standards of his community.
14. Children have to be kept in their place or they're apt to take too many liberties.
15. Teachers should not be expected to devote time to such activities as milk sales, P.T.A., students' clubs, and other non-teaching activities.
16. The teacher should strive for a close, warm, and protective relationship with his pupils.
17. Many of the people who control the destiny of the public schools send their own children to private schools.
18. Children are more considerate than many adults.
19. Children learn best in an atmosphere filled with love and emotional support.
20. The teacher who acknowledges his own mistakes wins greater respect from the students than one who is never wrong.

21. Principals and supervisors have been selected for their competence and leadership ability and are entitled to respect.
22. A teacher is a highly respected member of the community.
23. There is less danger of pupils getting into trouble if they are kept busy at all times.
24. A teacher can seldom go wrong in following his principal's or supervisor's advice.
25. One of the most important qualities for a teacher to have is a lot of "personality".
26. Most teachers are too submissive in their relations with their superiors.
27. A good teacher never presents the same material in the same way twice.
28. The people who get ahead in education are the people who don't step on anybody's toes.
29. To understand the pupils completely, it's necessary to be able to imagine what it's like to be one of them.
30. Union activities are beneath the dignity of teachers.
31. It is inappropriate for teachers to criticize the policies of the school administrators.
32. The teacher should never accept late or untidy work.
33. Pupils can hardly be expected to learn proper attitudes if a teacher does not show the principal proper respect.
34. A good teacher likes all his students.
35. To learn something properly, pupils have to repeat and drill it many times.
36. There are some situations arising in school for which corporal punishment is the only real answer.
37. It wastes a lot of the teacher's valuable time when he has to deal with problem children himself, instead of being able to refer them immediately to the principal, guidance officer, or school psychologist.
38. A teacher should never stop taking courses.
39. It is sometimes necessary to scold or embarrass students in order to keep them in line.
40. Pupils expect too much help from the teacher and don't do enough on their own.
41. Too many supervisory appointments in the school system are made on the basis of politics rather than competence.
42. Grown-ups are never as sincere or spontaneous or charming as children.
43. A good teacher always earns the respect of his pupils and never demands it.
44. A pupil's first need is for warmth and tenderness.
45. School boards are generally concerned only with saving money when their first purpose should be to promote education.
46. Habits of punctuality, neatness, and organization are prerequisites for all further learning.
47. A teacher is duty-bound to stand by the principal under all circumstances.
48. A little clowning is a good way to hold the students' attention and make the learning process more pleasant.
49. It is highly desirable to grade children on personal habits and neatness.
50. The curriculum represents the best efforts of many competent educators and should therefore be followed as closely as possible.
51. If children were not pampered so much they would not be so sensitive to criticism and so easily hurt.
52. Pupils learn best with a teacher who is objective and impersonal, and who confines himself to instruction.
53. No learning can take place when children are whispering or laughing.
54. Competitive grades based on absolute standards of achievement do more to discourage students than to motivate them.
55. The good teacher is as much concerned with the physical and emotional development of his students as he is with their education.
56. Teaching goes a lot more smoothly if the teacher can get the children to accept him almost as though he were one of them.
57. The cultural, educational, and social prestige teachers enjoy does much to compensate for their low income.
58. Many of the most important decisions affecting the schools are made by people who know nothing about education.
59. Pupils pay more attention to a teacher who is a little dramatic, a little out of the ordinary.
60. Teachers are among the cultural and educational elite of their community.

61. The fairest way to evaluate pupils is to keep a careful record of all their oral and written work.
62. The true teacher never forgets his pupils, never ceases to care about what becomes of them.
63. The teacher should be careful never to do anything that might invite criticism.
64. Class work must be based on the child's own interests if the learning experience is to be effective.
65. A good teacher can be recognized by the appearance of his grade book and attendance records.
66. Teachers should not be required to lead clubs, serve on committees, or do other work outside of school hours.
67. The most important things for a child to learn in school are obedience and respect for authority.
68. The teacher should always behave in a formal, mature, and dignified fashion.
69. Teachers who devote practically all of their time to school activities are actually less effective as teachers than those who pursue other interests.
70. A colorful and amusing teacher is certain to be a good one.
71. Children who are told what to do soon lose the capacity to think for themselves.
72. The trouble with most supervisors and principals is that they watch teachers too closely and hang over them all the time.
73. A child is never too young to begin exercising his own judgement and making decisions for himself.
74. There's a lot to be said for the system in which the teacher keeps the same pupils for a number of grades.
75. The good teacher knows that to be effective, he must sometimes think and act like a child.
76. Although they may frequently protest, children really want to be told what to do.
77. One of the biggest attractions in teaching is the short working day, the frequent vacations during the school year, and the long summer recess.
78. The best teacher is usually one who allows the most freedom in the classroom.
79. Helping children after school encourages them to be lazy and inattentive during class.
80. There are fewer disciplinary problems when pupils are somewhat fearful of the teacher.
81. Teaching is one of the most respectable occupations a person can have.
82. Nothing in adult life can compare to the joy and magic of the child's world.
83. The reason why teachers are so badly off is that most of them don't have the courage to do anything about it.
84. A good teacher can take the dulllest material and make it entertaining.
85. Being with the children rather than over them, talking their language, and being informal, are the hallmarks of a good teacher.
86. It is impossible to manage either a school or classroom without having a carefully detailed system of rules and regulations.
87. Pupils learn very little from a teacher who does most of the talking in the classroom.
88. Every school should have some sort of a senior teacher whose only duty would be to help the individual teachers with classroom problems.
89. Children can never be given too much love.
90. The decisions made by the administration are always in the teachers' best interest.
91. Today's pupils do not have proper respect for their teachers.
92. It isn't necessary to feel a strong sense of personal commitment or dedication in order to be a good teacher.
93. A good teacher has to be part magician, part showman, and part salesman.
94. When children like a teacher, it's usually an indication that he lets them get away with too much.
95. It is a teacher's professional responsibility to spend some time in outside activities associated with teaching: P.T.A., extra-curricular activities, graduate work, teachers' groups, etc.
96. A great many of the people in school administration know very little about children or the everyday problems of teaching.
97. In dealing with children it's frequently necessary to remember what it's like to be one.
98. Children who misbehave or do not learn are generally children who need more love.
99. Children should never be embarrassed or made to feel inferior by a teacher.
100. Childhood is really the best time of life.

Part B - Directions

This part of the schedule consists of a number of statements describing many kinds of activities, events and situations related to teaching. Please indicate on the special answer sheet the items that you like, approve of, or would find pleasant to experience and, conversely, those that you dislike, disapprove of, or would find unpleasant to experience. It is not important whether or not you have actually done the things mentioned or have really had the opportunity to experience the events described. The schedule requires only an indication of your feeling about these events if you were to have the opportunity to experience them. Make sure you are using the side of your answer sheet marked Part B. Blacken your answer to each item in this section in the following way:

DISLIKE			LIKE			
-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3	
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☒	+3 Strong liking, preference, approval
-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3	
☐	☐	☐	☐	☒	☐	+2 Moderate liking, preference, approval
-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3	
☐	☐	☐	☒	☐	☐	+1 Slight liking, preference, approval
-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3	
☐	☐	☒	☐	☐	☐	-1 Slight dislike, disapproval
-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3	
☐	☒	☐	☐	☐	☐	-2 Moderate dislike, disapproval
-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3	
☒	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	-3 Strong dislike, disapproval

Part B

1. Playing games with my pupils.
2. Having my pupils put on plays and exhibitions for other classes or for parents.
3. Subscribing to educational journals.
4. Enlivening my lessons with stories, jokes, or personal anecdotes.
5. Working actively to promote greater public recognition and appreciation of the professional problems of teachers.
6. Being concerned about my pupils welfare outside the school.
7. Letting my pupils whisper or talk quietly among themselves.
8. Having the pupils do over papers that are not neat.
9. Having a principal who takes a close interest in the things I do.
10. Keeping careful and accurate records of pupil's progress, assignments, attendance, etc.
11. Getting home early enough to spend a few hours every afternoon with my family and/or other interests.
12. Having my pupils dramatize stories and lessons.
13. Conducting myself in the community in ways that reflect my status as a teacher.
14. Permitting no infractions of discipline, however minor, to go unnoticed.
15. Discouraging children from telling me personal things about themselves.
16. Seeing how much I can do for children who have been deprived of affection and emotional support.
17. Having as few rules and regulations for the students as possible.
18. Fighting for better pay, sickness and accident protection, retirement provisions, etc., for teachers.
19. Browsing in toy shops.
20. Having brothers and sisters, or children of former pupils in my class.

21. Having a supervisor or principal who shows as much concern for my personal development as for my professional growth.
22. Having my pupils copy my favorite expressions or mannerisms.
23. Being introduced to others as a teacher.
24. Following a daily classroom routine faithfully.
25. Having other teachers take an interest in my work and offer me advice or suggestions.
26. Being an active member of a teachers' federation or union.
27. Capturing the attention of my pupils to the point where they're hanging on my every word.
28. Attending concerts, art exhibits, plays, etc., with other teachers.
29. Making up stories for children.
30. Writing letters to newspaper editors or congressmen about educational problems.
31. Having the principal or supervisor visit my classes regularly.
32. Giving the pupils the opportunity for a lot of drill and formal recitation.
33. Hearing a child unconsciously call me "mother" or "father".
34. Keeping my classroom as clean and neat as my own home.
35. Putting loyalty and obedience to my principal or supervisor above personal differences of opinion.
36. Keeping my classroom so quiet that you can hear a pin drop.
37. Finishing all my work during the school day, so that when I go home my time will be my own.
38. Attending educational conferences.
39. Discouraging pupils from getting to expect extra help after school.
40. Praising a child only when he's really done something deserving.
41. Bringing the problems of the school system to the attention of the public.
42. Having pupils regard me not only as their teacher but also as someone who understands and really cares about them.
43. Letting the students make their own decisions about classroom activities and procedures.
44. Keeping up with the songs, books, T.V. programs, etc., that my pupils are interested in.
45. Encouraging other teachers to take an active role in a teacher federation or union.
46. Being closely supervised by my superiors.
47. Scheduling activities of the school day minute by minute.
48. Having pupils compliment me on my clothing or appearance.
49. Having the entire class do the same thing at the same time.
50. Being provided by the school administration with detailed lesson plans to be followed throughout the term.
51. Permitting children to talk only when called upon.
52. Following the careers of former pupils.
53. Encouraging my pupils to direct their own activities, providing help only when needed.
54. Forgetting all about teaching during the summer vacation.
55. Having a reputation among the pupils for being a strict teacher.
56. Seeing the girls in my family, or of close friends, develop an interest in teaching as a career.
57. Speaking up for more objective and politically independent appointments of principals and educational supervisors.
58. Being invited by the pupils to join in their games or parties.
59. Telling others what my occupation is.
60. Being appreciated by the children for my sense of humor.

61. Making sure my pupils cover every bit of the curriculum.
62. Inviting pupils to question my decisions and express their own opinions.
63. Relying closely on a supervisor for help and guidance.
64. Having a pupil confide in me as in a parent.
65. Discouraging class discussions and other distractions from the planned lesson.
66. Leaving school right after the end of classes.
67. Introducing a great deal of variety in my lessons so that the pupils are continually looking forward to the next surprise.
68. Running my class with a firm hand.
69. Being identified as a member of the same social and cultural class as other teachers.
70. Putting school problems out of my mind as soon as I get home.
71. Letting students choose their own projects, topics for themes, etc.
72. Questioning activities of the local school board or legislative agencies.
73. Joining in the fun my pupils are having.
74. Helping children with their personal problems.
75. Helping children to discover and assert their own individuality.
76. Holding the whole class responsible for any breaches of discipline.
77. Working for a principal who doesn't make excessive demands on my personal time.
78. Spending a considerable amount of class time in group discussions.
79. Leaving extra-curricular assignments to teachers who are more interested in them.
80. Having my pupils know who is boss.
81. Helping children with their hobbies.
82. Being known as a colorful and stimulating teacher.
83. Continuing my education as a teacher by taking courses, attending lectures, etc.
84. Being outspoken in defense of teacher's rights.
85. Getting to know my pupils well enough to be able to share fully their thoughts and feelings with them.
86. Doing my best to please my supervisor or principal.
87. Reminding my pupils to dress warmly, button their coats, wear rubbers, etc.
88. Following specific and carefully organized lesson plans.
89. Encouraging pupils to express themselves freely in my classroom.
90. Being supervised by a person who expects me to discuss all my problems with him.
91. Making it clear to the youngsters that I won't tolerate any foolishness.
92. Being selected to represent the teaching profession on a civic committee.
93. Having a reputation for experimenting with novel and unusual teaching techniques.
94. Having the pupils maintain proper respect at all times for my position as their teacher.
95. Insisting that parents contact me during the school day rather than on my own time.
96. Being a pal to my pupils.
97. Organizing my class so that each pupil is following his own interests and doing independent work most of the time.
98. Encouraging other teachers to express their opinions publicly about issues or events of significance to our profession.
99. Forgetting my dignity and getting right down to the children's own level.
100. Having former pupils remember me, stop to talk on the street, or come to visit.